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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

A STUDY OF EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS AND EXPECTATIONS

by



WAI-MING PONG

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend
to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance,
a thesis entitled "A Study of Educational Aspirations and Expectations"
submitted by Wai-Ming Pong in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Master of Arts

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE
OF MASTER OF ARTS

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

FALL, 1972

thesis
725-18

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA
FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The study was based on data collected from 1,117 high school students in Newburg, Oregon. The objectives of the research were to study several theoretically important areas which were relatively neglected by previous research efforts. The results of statistical analysis

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ABSTRACT

The study was based on data collected from 1,542 high-school students in Roseburg, Oregon. The objective of the research was to study several theoretically important areas which were relatively neglected by previous research efforts. Six aspects of educational aspirations and educational expectations were examined. First, no substantial difference in terms of the proportions of variance explained by eleven predictor variables was found between aspiration and expectation. Second, both aspiration and expectation were found to be positively and significantly related to social class background when four intervening variables were controlled. Third, a discrepancy was found between the level of aspiration and the level of expectation. The aspiration-expectation discrepancy was inversely related to socioeconomic status. Fourth, the proportions of explained variance in the educational expectations of high-aspiring and low-aspiring students were relatively low. Fifth, structural, academic, and attitudinal factors were found to be significantly related to educational orientation congruity. However, the characteristics of orientation inconsistency differed for different social groups. Within the same orientation group, there were considerable differences between middle-class and lower-class students, and between males and females. Sixth, the anticipatory cognitive dissonance hypothesis was confirmed for the males but rejected for the females. Theoretical relevance and limitations of the findings were discussed and suggestions for future research made.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I wish to thank Dr. Lyle Larson who gave me permission to use his data on which this study is based and whose encouragement and advice I found invaluable. I am also indebted to Dr. Charles Hobart and Dr. John Mitchell whose suggestions and comments helped improve the analysis and the style of this thesis.

Finally, I would like to thank Mrs. D. McVey who did a remarkable job in proofreading and typing my thesis.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
I. INTRODUCTION.	1
II. THEORETICAL ISSUES.	5
III. METHODS	27
IV. FINDINGS.	40
V. CONCLUSION.	84
BIBLIOGRAPHY.	91
APPENDIX--STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE	105

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
1. Frequency Distribution for Seven Family Background Variables.	31
2. Educational Aspiration by Eleven Predictor Variables	41
3. Educational Aspiration by Peer Group Influence.	44
4. Educational Expectation by Eleven Predictor Variables	45
5. Proportions of Explained Variance in Educational Aspiration and Expectation by Eleven Predictor Variables	47
6. Proportions of Explained Variance in Educational Aspirations and Expectations of 7th and 12th Grade Students by Eleven Predictor Variables.	50
7. Zero Order Correlation Matrix	52
8. Partial Correlation Matrix: Educational Aspiration and Expectation by Socio-Economic Status, by Four Selected Predictor Variables.	54
9. Social Class Differences in Percentage Discrepancy between University Aspirations and Expectations.	56
10. Proportions of Explained Variance in Educational Expectations of High-Aspiring and Low-Aspiring Students by Eleven Predictor Variables.	58
11. Educational Orientation Congruity by Twelve Predictor Variables	60
12. Eleven Variables by Educational Orientation Congruity among Middle-Class Students	62
13. Eleven Variables by Educational Orientation Congruity among Lower-Class Students.	63
14. Chi-Square Tests for Eleven Variables by Educational Orientation Congruity by Socio-Economic Status.	66
15. Twelve Variables by Educational Congruity among Females	68
16. Twelve Variables by Educational Orientation Congruity among Males	70
17. Chi-Square Tests for Twelve Variables by Educational Orientation Congruity by Sex.	72
18. Academic Values by Sex by Anticipatory Cognitive Dissonance.	76

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE	PAGE
1. Social Class Differences in Percentage Discrepancy between University Aspirations and Expectations.	56

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Judging from the number of studies on educational orientation in recent years, one can safely say that this area of investigation has been recognized by sociologists, social psychologists, and educators as having particular significance. Literally hundreds of articles, books, and reports have been devoted to this topic. A bibliography of the literature in this field compiled by Kuvlesky and Ohlendorf (1970) listed more than four hundred titles. Within this general area of concern, there is one particular theme that has received special attention, namely, the relationship between social class and educational orientations. The emphasis on the relationship between social class and educational orientation has both practical and theoretical relevance.

As has been pointed out by many sociologists (Glick, 1954; Lipset and Bendix, 1959; Parsons, 1968; Rogoff, 1961), education, particularly higher education, has become the principal avenue for upward social mobility in modern industrial societies. However, this avenue is not equally accessible to all. Blau and Duncan have pointed out that,

Education assumes increasing significance for social status in general and for the transmission of social standing from fathers to sons in particular. Superior family origins increase a son's chances of attaining superior occupational status in the United States in large part because they help him to obtain a better education (1967: 430).

Examining the changes in college enrollment in the United States between 1939 and 1959, Jaffe and Adams (1964) found that children of workers or farmers have not shown an increased tendency to go to college compared

to children of professional families. One would have assumed that the alleged democratization of college education might have resulted in increases in plans to attend college among the children of the working-class. A similar study by Spady (1967) reveals that, although educational attainment levels improve for men in all social classes over time, the differences in entering and completing college between men from high- and low-status origins appear to be increasing over time in both actual and conditional probabilities. In his presidential address to the American Sociological Association, Sewell has pointed out that in the States, "Despite the spectacular increase in the numbers attending college during the past decade, there is no good reason to believe that socioeconomic differentials in opportunity for higher education have altered appreciably" (1971: 797). In order to achieve some kind of social equality and to provide equal educational opportunity for all people, it is imperative to discover what factors are responsible for the unequal distribution of educational chances. Educational administrators and decision-makers need research data to guide in policy formation and implementation.

The study of educational orientation involves many theoretical issues. Research on educational orientation is important for the study of social stratification and social mobility. It demonstrates the nature, functioning, persistence and change, and the effects of the stratification system. Educational orientation research is also closely tied to studies on the family. Educational selection and achievement often reflect the structure and the process of the family system. Other issues include the social bases of value systems, the significance of achievement motivation, the relative importance of structural and

psychological factors, and reference group theory.

BASIC OBJECTIVES

The purpose of this study is not to test or to develop any particular theory. Instead, it seeks to explore several important issues in the study of mobility aspiration and mobility expectation.

This study will examine two main topics: the nature of aspiration and expectation, and issues related to the discrepancy between these two dimensions of mobility orientation. First, since most studies have failed to examine aspiration and expectation together or have failed to go beyond merely noting the disparity between the two measures, it is the purpose of this research to point out the basic differences between these two aspects of mobility orientation. It is suggested that aspiration and expectation, though highly correlated, represent two divergent modes of mobility orientation and are associated with different socio-cultural characteristics. The independent contribution of various predictor variables to the variations in educational aspiration and expectation will be determined. One of the most important aspects of mobility orientations is their close relationship with social class background. Though much has been done on the effect of social class on aspiration, studies often yield divergent and sometimes contradictory results and interpretations. Part of this study will include a re-examination of this old problem with new data.

Second, whenever both aspiration and expectation are examined together the discrepancy between these two measures is well recognized. To the author's knowledge, no study has ever attempted to explore the predictability of educational expectations when a person's educational

aspiration is known. Most researchers have likewise failed to locate the causes of the aspiration-expectation discrepancy. These two issues will receive considerable attention in this study. The significance of the discrepancy between aspiration and expectation is that, like status inconsistency, the aspiration-expectation discrepancy would appear to have effects on behaviors and attitudes. A new concept, "anticipatory cognitive dissonance" (i.e., the disparity between a person's aspiration and expectation) will be introduced and its possible effects on attitudes will be examined.

ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS

The literature will be reviewed in Chapter II. Chapter II also presents the conceptual approach and the hypotheses. Chapter III includes a summary of the data collection process, a description of the sample, definitions of concepts, and a brief account of the statistical methods used in the study. The data will be analyzed in Chapter IV. Chapter V will contain the summary and conclusions.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL ISSUES

The first part of this chapter is devoted to a general review of the literature on educational orientations. Special attention will be given to the general trend of research development. The second part is a detailed review of the literature on mobility aspiration and expectation which are the main concerns of this study. Following this is a brief statement of the conceptual approach. The rationale of various tests and hypotheses will be presented in the final section of this chapter.

GENERAL REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In the study of educational orientations, social class is typically used as the major independent variable. As one recent study has pointed out, ". . . social class background could be regarded as the variable that is most studied in relation to one's educational aspiration" (George and Kim, 1971: 355). To date, the general consensus is that educational orientations are class based. Despite this consensus, there is much disagreement in accounting for the relationship between social class background and educational ambition. Broadly speaking, there exist two theoretical perspectives. Educational inequality, according to Mulligan (1951), can be explained by two competing approaches. One emphasized the lower-class perception of access limitation; the other, the cultural theory of social class,

emphasizes the cultural values of the lower class as the prime factor that obstructs the educational development of the lower-class members. Keller and Zavalloni (1964) have likewise identified two prominent views on social inequality. One accounts for the lesser achievement of the lower class in terms of limited motivation; the other, in terms of limited opportunities.

The "cultural theory of social class" and the limited motivation hypothesis emphasize ability, attitudes, values, and motivation and tend to locate the chief causes of inequality and immobility within the individual himself. There are many attempts to demonstrate that different classes espouse different values and beliefs which in turn lead to different levels of mobility aspiration. Hyman (1966) maintains that lack of upward mobility is a consequence of a system of values and beliefs within the lower classes which reduces the very voluntary actions which would ameliorate their low position. By comparing the values held by Jews and Italians, Strodtbeck (1959) has found that a belief that the world is orderly and rational, a willingness to be independent, a preference for individualism, and a belief in the perfectability of man are important for achievement and upward mobility. A study by McDill and his associates (1969) shows that students' college plans are related to academic values which include such aspects as learning as much as possible, the importance of good grades, and satisfaction received from working hard on studies. There are many other studies in this area of investigation (Douvan and Adelson, 1958; Kahl, 1965; Katz, 1964; Rosen, 1956; Rushing, 1970) which show similar results.

Closely related to achievement-oriented values is achievement motivation. Comparing boys who went to college with those who didn't,

Stivers (1958) has found that those who did go scored higher on McClelland's test of need for achievement. Both Douvan (1956) and Rosen (1956) have found that middle-class individuals tend to have higher and more generalized achievement motivation than lower-class members. According to a study by Douvan and Adelson (1958), upwardly mobile boys, compared to stable and downwardly mobile subjects, are more willing to yield security for the sake of achievement, have a greater drive toward independence and responsibility, and show a high degree of self-acceptance. McGuire (1950), Havighurst and Rodgers (1952), Schneider and Lysgaard (1953), Rosenberg (1957), Lipset and Bendix (1959), Rosen (1959), and Crockett (1962) have also obtained comparable findings.

The access limitation hypothesis, on the other hand, emphasizes the structural character of social stratification and seeks to locate the institutional sources of social inequality. In contrast to the "cultural theory of social class" which blames an individual's lack of achievement-oriented values for his deprivation and immobility, the access limitation hypothesis posits that members of all social classes share common success goals. Scanzoni succinctly summarizes this point of view by noting that, "Lower status persons appear to be just as oriented as those with higher status to the American Dream, to the idea that hard work and diligent effort will 'surely' eventuate in success" (1970: 174), though he also points out that the lower class, at the same time, has stronger passivity orientations than the middle class. Another study by Sugarman (1966) shows that achievement-oriented values are not significantly related to socio-economic status. Merton (1957) postulates that American culture places a high premium on success and

high aspirations for all. More modest aspirations on the part of the lower classes is seen as a result of a perceived lack of opportunity. This discrepancy is further hypothesized by Merton to be located in the social structure which fails to provide equal opportunities for all. There have been several attempts at applying Merton's argument to the study of educational orientations (Caro, 1966; Empey, 1956; Holloway and Berreman, 1959; Stephenson, 1957).

The argument of differential motivation has likewise been challenged. Mizuchi (1964), for example, has shown that the urge to get ahead is important for the lower class as well as for the middle class. Similar findings have been reported by Wan Sang Han (1969) and Nagasawa (1971). Even the significance of achievement motivation as a source of influence has been questioned by some writers. Using path-analytic models, Featherman (1972) has found that achievement-related motivations fail to function as intervening variables capable of explaining how social class background affects status attainment.

The two contrasting views concerning the relationship between social class background and educational orientations obviously demand reconciliation. This has led some writers to explore other ways to resolve the controversy. These often involve the process of reconceptualization. New concepts are introduced, different aspects of an old concept are specified. Examples of new concepts are Rodman's "value stretch," Turner's "value compartmentalization," and Caro and Pihlblad's "expectation drag." All are attempts to resolve the contradiction between the view that society is based on a common value system and the view that society is based upon a class-differentiated value system. By "value stretch," Rodman (1963) means that the lower-class subjects,

without giving up the general values of the society, develop an additional set of values and beliefs. Thus, without giving up the general values placed upon high educational aspiration and occupational success, they "stretch" the values so that lesser degrees of success also become acceptable. This is, Rodman argues, a social mechanism that reduces the strains that lower-class people potentially face. Turner's "value compartmentalization" means that ". . . whenever the life situation of any group of people. . . makes the attainment of any given value difficult and infrequent, the members of that group will tend through their self-conceptions to de-emphasize the value as a goal for their own striving, though they may continue to acknowledge it in other contexts" (1964: 80). Hence different classes may espouse the same set of values but aspire toward divergent goals for their activities. Basing their argument on "balance theory," Caro and Pihlblad (1965) introduce the idea of "expectation drag" which means an artificial lowering of aspiration level to reduce the uncomfortable imbalance between high ambition and predicted modest attainment. The writers maintain that there is no basic class difference in the evaluation of the occupational structure.

Two important attempts have been made to specify the concept of "aspiration." The first attempt splits the idea of aspiration into absolute aspiration and relative aspiration. The second differentiates aspiration from expectation. Class-related aspirations do not necessarily imply less ambition or lower achievement on the part of the lower class. Most of the writers who claim that lower-class individuals possess less intense achievement desire have neglected the fact that certain attainment levels are not equally accessible to members of

various classes. Realizing this, Empey (1956) has introduced the ideas of absolute and relative aspirations. When an absolute standard is used, the aspirations of lower-class subjects are compared with those of upper-class and middle-class subjects; when a relative standard is used, each subject's aspiration is compared with the attainment of his parents. The same idea has been put forth by Rosenberg who said:

Thus the question, "Is the wealthy or the poor student more likely to expect to get ahead economically?" must be answered in the following way. If we mean by "getting ahead economically" the expectation of surpassing one's family, then the poorer student has greater mobility expectations. But if we mean by "getting ahead economically" the desire to acquire a great deal of money in terms of some absolute social standard, then the wealthier person appears to expect greater upward mobility (1957: 60).

Keller and Zavalloni (1964) have advanced the same argument. Rushing (1964), in his study, also employs the idea of a relative measure of mobility aspirations.

The other major approach is to separate aspiration from expectation and to compare the two. Stephenson (1957), for example, characterizes aspiration as idealistic, whereas expectation is seen as realistic. Similarly, Wan Sang Han (1969) differentiates what he calls the "socio-economic level of wish" from the "socio-economic level of expectation," the former being circumstance-free and the latter being circumstance-bound. Operationally, the distinction between aspiration and expectation can be used to identify and locate the sources of limitation in a person's goal orientation (Caro and Pihlblad, 1965). The size of the disparity between the level of aspiration and the level of expectation may be taken to indicate a person's realization of access limitations. A comparison of education aspirations with expectations, then, should reveal whether class differences in educational orientations

result from differences in values and other psychological factors or from differences in perception of the accessibility of educational objectives.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON THE ASPIRATION-EXPECTATION THEME

There is nothing new in the idea that there are idealistic and realistic levels of aspiration. Lewin (1939) distinguished between what he called "real" and "ideal" aspirations; real aspiration was defined as what the person thought he might really achieve, and ideal aspiration as what he wished to achieve in an ideally perfect situation. However, there exists considerable terminological confusion and accordingly little consensus as to how concepts such as aspiration and expectation are to be used. Such conceptual confusion arises mainly from the fact that idealistic aspirations and realistic plans are often treated as synonymous. For example, though Lewin, et al. (1944) had differentiated real aspiration from ideal aspiration, in a later study he and his associates suggested that the level of aspiration should include: the ideal goal, the action goal, and the level of expected performance. Bell (1963), in his review of the literature, has noted the tendency of sociologists and psychologists to equate "desire to excel" with "perceived likelihood of success." Weiss has pointed out that, "Instructions to the subject have tended to vary widely among studies of level of aspiration. In some studies S is asked what he expects to achieve, while other studies inquire as to what he hopes, intends, or would like to achieve" (1961: 249). This lamentable situation has again been attacked by a more recent study:

Aspiration and plans are two theoretical concepts which have received considerable attention by social theorists and researchers over the past three decades. However, there has been little agreement concerning the definition of these concepts and/or the operations for their measurement (Brookover, et al., 1967: 392).

A less serious problem is the lack of uniformity regarding the use of the terms "aspiration" and "expectation." Instead of using aspiration and expectation to express idealistic wish and realistic plan, respectively, Haller (1968) has proposed to use "idealistic aspiration" and "realistic aspiration." He argues that it would be less confusing if the term "expectation" were used only for those things alter wants of ego. In other words, he proposes to speak of A's expectation for B and B's aspiration for himself. Following Haller's suggestion, Williams (1972) defines aspirations as the desires individuals have to attain some future status for themselves, and expectations as the desires individuals have for the future status of others. Various other terms have been adopted or created by writers to refer to roughly the same ideas. Brookover, et al. (1967), for example, uses "educational plans" instead of "educational expectations." Wan Sang Han (1969) introduces the "socio-economic level of wish" and the "socio-economic level of expectation" to stand for aspiration and expectation, respectively. But regardless of the terms used, there are clear indications that researchers have recognized the need to differentiate the two dimensions.

Though much has been written on the mobility orientations of adolescents, relatively little research has been done using the disparity between aspiration and expectation as an analytical tool. The most common approach in this area of research is to test the relative impact of social class background on the aspiration and expectation levels and to

determine the degree of disparity between the idealistic and the realistic measures of mobility orientations among various social classes. Empey (1956), in one of the earliest studies of this kind, has observed that students from lower strata are more inclined than those from middle and upper strata to reduce their occupational aspirations significantly when faced with the necessity of choosing between their preferred and intended occupations. This implies that the degree of disparity would be greater for the lower-class subjects than for the middle- or upper-class subjects. A study by Stephenson (1957) shows that youths hold a relatively common perception in the aspiration dimension, but that the expectation dimension is more sharply differentiated by their social positions. In other words, aspirations are relatively unaffected by class background while plans or expectations are more definitely class-based. In a later study which compares the educational and occupational orientations of British and American youths, Stephenson (1958) has arrived at similar conclusions. Similarly, Holloway and Berreman (1959) have discovered no significant class differences in educational aspirations. Both classes are predominantly high in terms of idealistic ambition. Insofar as the discrepancy between aspiration and expectation is concerned, there is no inconsistency among white middle-class students; but lower-class whites and negroes show plans significantly lower than their aspirations.

A study on parents' mobility orientations for their children by Jaffe and Adams (1964) shows that the majority of all parents would like their children to attend college. But when asked whether they intend to send their children to college, a significantly smaller proportion of the parents indicate that they will do so. This study is similar to

the others in that aspiration is free from social class influence, whereas expectation is class-based. This also implies that the degree of discrepancy would be greater for the lower class than for the middle class. Working-class adolescents, according to a study by Caro (1966), are far more flexible than their middle-class counterparts about what they would like to do after high school. Whereas middle-class boys indicate explicitly that college is the preference, working-class boys are indifferent between college and other alternatives. The latter would more readily settle for something much lower than what they aspire. This means that working-class and middle-class boys may be equally high on aspiration, but working-class youths are more likely to have lower expectations. This also means that the aspiration-expectation disparity for working-class youths would be greater than for middle-class youths. These studies have produced a consistent body of findings.

However, there are some studies which have obtained different results. In a study of occupational goals in the Greater London Area, Himmelweit, et al. (1952) have found that both occupational aspirations and occupational expectations of secondary-school students vary positively with social class. A study by Bennett and Gist (1964) has provided evidence that educational aspirations and plans do not vary among social classes. Somewhat different is Caro and Pihlblad's study (1965) which shows that lower-class subjects, besides having lower aspirations than their upper-class counterparts, also have greater aspiration-expectation discrepancies than upper-class subjects. Rehberg (1967), disagreeing with the interpretations of Stephenson's and Bennett and Gist's studies, has found that the proportion of adolescents expressing aspirations to high educational goals varies according to social position. Also, the

proportion of adolescents expressing expectations to high educational goals varies positively with social status. Consistent with Rehberg's findings, Wendling and Elliot's study (1968) lends support to the contention that both educational aspirations and expectations vary by social class. But, unlike most other studies, the writers have found that the disparity between aspiration and expectation also varies with class, i.e., middle class has greater disparities than lower class.

Instead of simply looking at the relationship between social class and mobility aspiration and expectation, a few writers have attempted to probe the two dimensions of mobility orientation in relation to other variables. In a study by Schwarzweller (1959), it is hypothesized that value orientations are more important in aspiration situations than in plan situations. The reverse is true of structural factors. But it has been demonstrated that for educational orientation the functional importance of value orientations in the decision-making process increases when moving from the aspiration stage to the planning stage. On the contrary, the functional importance of values for occupational orientations diminishes as one moves closer to reality situations. Wan Sang Han (1969) argues that adolescents tend to have both circumstance-free wishes and circumstance-bound expectations. His findings show that there is little association between one's aspiration level and one's perception of limitation due to restricted opportunities and limited ability. However, perception of limitations was found to affect the level of expectation. It was also found that the discrepancy between the level of wish and the level of expectation is positively related to limitation-awareness. Further, a study by Brookover and his associates (1967) shows that correlations between educational plans and academic

achievement are greater than correlations between educational aspirations and achievement. Similarly, correlations between educational plans and socio-economic status are greater than correlations between aspirations and socio-economic status. Using factor analysis, Weiss (1961) has been able to show that mobility orientation has two dimensions: a judgmental or expectational dimension, and a motivational or aspirational dimension. Furthermore, the expectational factor represents a dimension of resistance to emotional influences, while the aspirational factor represents a dimension of emotional arousal.

All of the above studies treat aspiration, expectation, and the discrepancy between the two as dependent variables. There is at least one study which attempts to use the disparity measure as an independent variable. Wan Sang Han (1968) hypothesizes that the adolescent's perception of illegitimate expediency is positively related to the level of the discrepancy between his wish and his expectation. His findings indicate that those who have a severe amount of inconsistency are more inclined to deviate from legitimate norms in attaining cultural goals. The fact that the ideal-reality discrepancy has been shown to be capable of affecting human behavior further enhances the theoretical significance of treating aspiration and expectation as two distinct dimensions of mobility orientation.

To conclude, it is possible to point out several major weaknesses or knowledge gaps in the study of mobility aspiration and expectation. First, little basic agreement has yet been reached regarding the relationship between social class background and aspiration. Some studies have found no relationship at all between the two with the implication that people of all social classes equally endorse the so-called success

theme and have roughly the same level of mobility ambition. However, other studies have demonstrated that there is a distinct and positive relationship between social status and aspiration. This may lead to the interpretation that people of various social classes have different achievement-oriented values or different levels of achievement motivation. Second, other than noting the fact that aspiration represents the idealistic aspect of mobility orientation and expectation represents the realistic aspect, students of social mobility have made very few attempts to investigate the similarities and dissimilarities of the two aspects of mobility orientation. The studies by Schwarzweller (1959), Weiss (1961), Brookover (1967), and Han (1969) are initial steps in this direction. All four studies indicate that there are considerable differences between aspiration and expectation in relation to variables such as value orientations, access limitation awareness, socio-economic status, and academic achievement. Further research in this area is definitely needed. Third, though the relationship between mobility aspiration and a great number of independent variables has been examined fairly thoroughly, this is not the case with respect to mobility expectation. As has been pointed out, there are only a few studies which attempt to relate mobility expectation to variables other than social class. Fourth, though the discrepancy between aspiration and expectation has been recognized by most writers, very few have studied the factors related to this discrepancy. In most cases, the aspiration-expectation discrepancy is accounted for by simply pointing out that it represents an incongruity between reality and ideals. This argument, more often than not, is derived from theoretical assumptions rather than from empirical findings. The study by Han (1969) is a rare exception.

Furthermore, it is well known that the orientation discrepancy is smaller among middle-class members than among lower-class members. It is possible that the causal factors that are responsible for lower-class discrepancies may be different from those that are responsible for middle-class discrepancies. No attempt has yet been made to investigate this possibility. Finally, the possible effects of the aspiration-expectation discrepancy have rarely been studied. It is as important to know the consequences of the discrepancy as to know its causes.

CONCEPTUAL APPROACH

In this study, it is assumed that the stratification process is a system. The psychological and structural components of the stratification process are seen as interrelated and mutually reinforcing. Through the process of socialization, individuals learn the constraints external to the social status they will occupy (i.e., outside their own social class) and the constraints posed by their immediate social location (i.e., within their own social class). The interplay between these constraints and the individual's response to them contribute to the shaping of personality and related psychological attributes. Pearlin and Kohn (1966), for example, have shown that a person's occupation accounts for virtually all the variation in his values. Attitudes, motivation, personality, and even I.Q. (to a certain extent) can be conceived of as initially emerging out of both physical and social conditions. But, once formed and stabilized, they can exert impact on behaviors which, in turn, react back upon a person's psychological complex. Accordingly, the debate concerning whether structural factors or psychological factors ultimately determine behaviors seems false and

misleading without specifying the interconnection among each of these factors. Commenting on the relationship between values and behaviors, Williams said:

If our problem is to predict from an external stimulus to subsequent behavior, we may treat values as intervening variables, inside the black box of the social actor. If the stimulus field is held constant and our problem is to predict subsequent behavior, we can treat values as independent variables (1967: 25).

The same approach is applicable to our understanding of the relationship between social class background and mobility orientations. The stratification process is not a one-way path leading from a person's social class position to his subsequent behaviors. In between the two, individual psychological factors play an important role in mediating and compounding the impact of the structural factors. Mobility orientation, as a special class of attitudes which leads to subsequent behavior, is influenced to a great extent by one's social class position (both internal and external constraints).

Mobility orientation can be conceptually differentiated into idealistic aspiration and realistic expectation. It is further assumed that aspiration and expectation are related to differing sources of influences. Aspirations would appear to be most closely related to internal psychological forces due to its inherent similarity to ideals or values. While aspiration may be related to socio-cultural encouragement (i.e., sponsorship, opportunity combined with attraction toward), it is unlikely that a student without favorable attitudes and adequate motivation toward college where reality factors are favorable (such as parental pressure) will aspire to attend university. Expectation, in contrast, is related to both psychological and structural forces.

Expectation more closely represents an appraisal of the concrete and objective situation which includes one's psychological inclination and the existing socio-cultural constraints. Expectations can be seen as indications of the magnitude to which goals and intentions are influenced not only by one's psychological inclination but also by the adequacy of mobility resources such as financial support and good academic performance. By studying both aspiration and expectation, it will be possible to assess the relative effect of structural and psychological factors on mobility orientations.

HYPOTHESES

As has been pointed out, the basic objective of this study is to work on several areas which are theoretically important in the study of educational orientations and which have been relatively neglected by previous research efforts. In this section, the basic objectives will be elaborated. The rationale for studying such objectives will also be presented. Wherever possible, hypotheses will be set forth for testing.

I. Educational Orientation.

Since aspiration and expectation represent two divergent modes of mobility orientation, it is argued that they have different patterns of causal antecedents. To test this argument, a series of tests, which involve cross-tabulation and stepwise regression analyses, will be performed to assess the independent and relative contribution of eleven predictor variables to educational aspiration and expectation and to compare the patterns of influence between aspiration and expectation.

II. Social Class and Educational Orientations.

One of the most important issues in the explanation of aspiration and expectation is their relationship with social class. To demonstrate that such relationships exist, it is necessary to show that the relationships are not spurious. Four intervening variables, namely, financial help, parental pressure for additional schooling, academic performance, and the belief that school is relevant, will be controlled simultaneously. These variables represent both individual psychological factors as well as perceptions of access limitation. The chosen variables have also been shown by previous studies to be important in determining educational orientations. Two hypotheses will be tested:

1. There is a positive relationship between social class and educational aspiration when four intervening variables are controlled.
2. There is a positive relationship between social class and educational expectation when four intervening variables are controlled.

III. Aspiration-Expectation Discrepancy.

The discrepancy between aspiration and expectation will be examined in relation to social class background. Like most studies, it is hypothesized that the aspiration-expectation discrepancy is inversely related to the student's socio-economic status.

IV. Differential Aspiration.

Most previous studies have shown that the discrepancy between aspiration and expectation exists not only among lower-class but also among middle-class subjects, though the discrepancies are more pronounced

among the former than among the latter. This implies that even among middle-class students there are some who aspire to college education but do not expect to attend university, and there are others who have low aspirations but high expectations. It is thus natural to ask: How can one predict a person's expectation when his aspiration is known? Educational expectation is known to be closely related to mobility attainment. Rehberg (1967), for example, has discovered an exceptionally high degree of congruence between college-going expectation and actual college enrollment. The ability to account for one's expectation when one's aspiration is known, therefore, has both theoretical and practical significance. The task is to discover the pattern of causal influences and the variables that can best explain the variance in a person's educational expectation after his aspiration is controlled. It is hypothesized that different forces are at work when two groups of people, the high-aspiring group and the low-aspiring group, are to decide on their educational plans. If this is the case, when aspirations are controlled, the pattern of causal influences on the educational expectations of the high-aspiring group would be different from the pattern of causal influences on the expectations of the low-aspiring group. This will be determined by means of stepwise regression analysis.

V. Educational Orientation Congruity.

An initial attempt will be made in this study to discover the relationship between orientation congruity (the consistency or inconsistency between aspirations and expectations) and various social and psychological factors. Just as a person's aspiration is affected by many factors, his orientation congruity may also be affected by his

social environment and psychological inclinations.

The fact that the middle-class person usually has smaller aspiration-expectation discrepancies than do lower-class people has been well documented. It is possible, as has been suggested, that the causal factors that are responsible for middle-class orientation incongruity may not be the same as those that are responsible for lower-class orientation incongruity. Several studies have found that certain independent variables do not affect the aspirations of different classes equally. Rosen (1961) has discovered that the impact of family size on a student's achievement motivation varies with his social class. The impact of family size is greater at the upper-middle and lower-class level than at the lower-middle and upper-lower levels. Lipset and Bendix (1959) point out that intelligence doesn't equally affect the college intentions of students of various social classes. The relationship between intelligence and college aspirations is not strong among upper- and lower-class subjects. Among students of the middle status, however, intelligence is particularly important as a factor affecting college aspirations. In order to fully understand how various factors influence orientation congruity, it is essential to explore the possible existence of "conditional relationship" (see Rosenberg, 1968: Chapter 6). Accordingly, social class and sex will be controlled.

A study by Krauss (1964) has shown that with respect to certain interests, values, and activities, the college-oriented working-class youths are very similar to the college-oriented middle-class students. Simpson (1962) has obtained comparable findings. It is important to ask whether consistent orientation groups (and inconsistent orientation groups) of both classes are similar with respect to various social and

psychological characteristics? Again, sex and social class will be controlled.

VI. Anticipatory Cognitive Dissonance.

In order to assess the effects of the aspiration-expectation discrepancy, a new concept, "anticipatory cognitive dissonance," is introduced. Anticipatory cognitive dissonance refers to the disparity or inconsistency between a person's idealistic aspiration and his realistic expectation. The disparity or inconsistency is anticipatory because both aspiration and expectation refer to actions or events to take place in the future.

The idea of anticipatory cognitive dissonance is developed from Festinger's cognitive dissonance theory. Festinger (1957) argues that performing an action, such as making a decision between two or more alternatives, being induced into doing something, or disagreeing openly in a group, may produce dissonance. Two cognitive elements are in a dissonant state if ". . . the obverse of one element would follow from the other." He further points out that the existence of dissonance, because of the psychological discomfort it engenders, gives rise to pressures to reduce the dissonance or to avoid increases in dissonance. One way of doing this is to decrease the importance of the elements involved in the dissonant relations. For example, after choosing between two alternatives, a person may attempt to reduce his dissonance ". . . by making the chosen alternative more desirable and the unchosen alternative less desirable after the choice than they were before it" (Brehm, 1956: 384). Another hypothesis of the cognitive dissonance theory is that the ". . . strength of the pressure to reduce dissonance is

a function of the magnitude of the existing dissonance" (Festinger, 1957: 263). Cognitive dissonance theory is, in a way, restrictive. The theory postulates that a state of dissonance will occur only after an act has been committed. However, it is the author's opinion that a dissonant state will occur if a person anticipates some kind of action or happening which would produce results contrary to what he would like to obtain. The inconsistency between a person's aspiration and expectation is a clear case of cognitive dissonance. If a person desires to do something but does not expect to be able to fulfill his wish, it is likely that he will experience some kind of unpleasant psychological tension. Aspiration and expectation are not actions. The former expresses a desire or an inclination. Expectation, on the other hand, can be seen as a prelude to action or one's estimation of one's future course of action.

It is hypothesized that if a person experiences an aspiration-expectation discrepancy, he will tend to transform the dissonant relation into a consonant or an irrelevant one. As has been suggested, one common technique is to increase the importance of the value dimensions that favor the chosen alternative or to reduce the importance of the value dimensions that favor the non-chosen one. Following this argument, one would expect that those students who aspire to college education but do not expect to attend university would de-emphasize the value dimensions of further education, so that when they actually have to make the decision the effect of the dissonance would be less discomforting. On the other hand, those who have no aspiration for higher education but expect to go to college (perhaps due to strong family pressure) would lay heavy stress on the values of further education. Unfortunately, there are not

too many cases of the latter category in our sample. Therefore, only the effect of the high-aspiration low-expectation discrepancy will be tested. The following hypothesis will be tested:

Those who experience anticipatory cognitive dissonance as a result of having high educational aspirations but low educational expectations will tend to de-emphasize the value of further education.

SUMMARY

The first part of this chapter was devoted to a review of the literature on mobility orientations. The trend of research development in this area of study reflects incessant attempts to account for the close relationship between social class and mobility ambition. The differentiation of mobility orientation into idealist aspiration and realistic expectation is one of the approaches to reconcile the two conflicting theoretical perspectives. A review of the literature on aspiration and expectation reveals that much remains to be done. The purposes of this thesis are to examine some of the problems left inadequately answered. This study regards aspiration and expectation as two divergent modes of mobility desire with differing patterns of causal antecedents. It also adopts a systemic approach to social stratification. The psychological and structural elements of the stratification process are seen as interrelating and mutually reinforcing. Thus a multi-variate approach is used in this study. This chapter also discussed the basic objectives and listed various hypotheses for empirical testing.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

This is a study based on secondary analysis of data collected by Professor L. E. Larson in Roseburg, Oregon, in the fall of 1967. Detailed information concerning data collection procedures and techniques can be found in Larson's Ph.D. thesis (1969). A brief account of the data gathering process and a summary of the characteristics of the sample will be given in the following paragraphs.

Roseburg is a small community in southern Oregon. It had a population of about 11,500 in 1960. The median education for men over 25 years of age was 11.9 years. Over half of the employed males over age 14 had blue-collar jobs. Roseburg was chosen for several methodological reasons: it was an area that had not been heavily researched; the occupational distribution of Roseburg was fairly evenly distributed between white- and blue-collar background; and the community had a population large enough to accommodate an adequate sample for a survey research study.

The population of the study was defined as all students who had finished the sixth grade but who had not yet graduated from high school, together with their parents. A non-random sample of all seventh-, ninth-, and twelfth-grade students who attended the Roseburg public schools was chosen. The selection of a non-random sample reduced to a great extent the disruption of class schedules and school administration by the study.

The collection of data from parents also militated against the use of a random sample. At the time of the study, there were 1,690 students enrolled in the three grades in the three public schools for junior and senior high school students. Excluding those who were absent on the days of the study (132 students), the final sample size consisted of 1,558 students from 1,338 family units. Sixteen questionnaires had to be discarded reducing the sample to 1,542 students.

Three questionnaires were developed--one for each parent and one for the student. All three questionnaires were pre-tested and revised before the final form was adopted. A copy of the student questionnaire can be found in the Appendix of this study. Owing to course-scheduling problems, it was decided that separate administrations for each school would be necessary. Appropriate arrangements were made with the principals of the schools. The day prior to the administration at a given school, a letter of introduction was mailed to the parents of the students who would take part in the study the following day. The letter informed and explained to the parents that one or more of their children would be participating in the study and that their child would be bringing home a questionnaire for each parent to complete and mail in.

Before each questionnaire-answering session actually started, the principal of the school introduced the investigator to the students and briefly indicated the purpose of the study. The questionnaires were then distributed to the students. A personal guarantee of anonymity was given by the investigator. The students were then asked to read the instructions which were printed on the first page of the questionnaire. After all the preliminary steps, the students were then told to start filling out the questionnaire. They were assured that although they

should answer the questions as quickly as possible they would have plenty of time. During all administration sessions, at least two teachers were present to assist the investigator in the answering of questions and the maintenance of discipline. At the end of the period the students were reminded to take home a packet which contained questionnaires for each parent and to urge their parents to fill them out and send them in as soon as possible. The packet also contained a letter of introduction with instructions and a postpaid return envelope.

Although the use of "take-home packets" was considered to be the best way of assigning the same identification number to student and parent, the success of this method was not as high as had been expected. It was estimated that at least 15 per cent of the packets never reached the parents. The day following each administration, the first follow-up letter to the parents of the appropriate sample was sent out. About ten days later, the second and final letter was mailed. Only 52 per cent (i.e., 713 out of 1,338) of the take-home packets were returned. Of these, 697 of the mother questionnaires and 592 of the father questionnaires were usable.

Although this study is based on the responses from the students alone, data acquired from the fathers are used in the measure of social class. Since only 592 usable questionnaires were returned from the fathers, information on the father's education, occupation, and socioeconomic position is based on a reduced sample of 612.

DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

Table 1 presents the frequency distribution for seven family background variables. As can be seen from the table, the number of males and the number of females are roughly the same. The number of students from small families and the number of those from large ones are also roughly equal. As a result of attrition, there is a marked decrease in the number of students in Grade 12. The mean education of the fathers is slightly more than 12 years. The mean socio-economic status of the students' families is between status level III and status level IV. Unpublished analysis by Larson suggests that although the blue-collar population appear to be under-represented in the sample and the educational level of the fathers is somewhat higher, no significant differences have been observed in the attitudinal and behavioral characteristics of students whose parents didn't mail in their questionnaires and those whose parents did. In other words, those students with social class background information are not a biased group.

GENERAL METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES

This section will deal with some general issues on methodology. Special methodological problems will be discussed in appropriate sections in Chapter IV.

Selection of Predictor Variables.

It is one of the goals of this study to include and test a wide range of predictor variables. This does not mean, however, that variables will be used indiscriminately. Twenty-nine variables were initially chosen and a correlation matrix was created and scrutinized to eliminate

TABLE 1. FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION FOR SEVEN FAMILY BACKGROUND VARIABLES

	N	%
Sex: Males	785	50.9
Females	757	49.1
Grade Level: Seventh	601	39.0
Ninth	540	35.0
Twelfth	401	26.0
Socio-economic Status: I	49	8.0
II	48	7.8
III	156	25.5
IV	260	42.5
V	99	16.2
Religion: No Church	227	18.2
Protestant - No Denomination	42	3.4
Jewish	1	0.1
Catholic	167	13.4
Fundamental Protestant	259	20.8
Conservative Protestant	310	24.9
Liberal Protestant	238	19.1
Family Size: 1 - 3 Children	763	49.5
4 or more Children	779	50.5
Father's Education: 16 years or more	125	19.6
14 years	124	19.5
12 years	202	31.7
11 years or less	186	29.2
Father's Occupation: Major Professional	50	8.1
Minor Professional	58	9.4
Lesser Professional	142	23.1
Clerical	115	18.7
Skilled Labor	123	20.0
Semi-skilled Labor	99	16.1
Unskilled Labor	28	4.6

those variables that have low predictive power and those that are in essence measuring the same thing. For example, fathers' occupation was found to be highly correlated with fathers' education, and both are components of the socio-economic status (SES) index. Consequently, both of them were discarded while SES was kept. Two academic values, attraction to school and the belief that school is relevant were also found to be fairly highly correlated, but it was also discovered that the latter correlated more highly with both aspiration and expectation. Therefore, attraction to school was dropped while the belief that school is relevant was retained. Father's pressure toward additional schooling and mother's pressure are highly correlated. There was no point in retaining both of them. They were therefore combined and transformed into an index called "parental pressure toward additional schooling." The same was true with communication with father on education and communication with mother on education. A new variable, "communication with parents on educational matters," was created.

However, the final selection contains some of the variables which do not actually correlate highly with either aspiration or expectation (see Table 6, p. 50). These include family size, best friends' pressure toward additional schooling, and teachers' pressure toward additional schooling. They were retained because previous studies have demonstrated their effectiveness in predicting educational orientations. For example, studies by Adam and Meidam (1968), Berdie (1954), Rehberg and Westby (1967), Rosen (1961), and Stice, et al. (1956), have shown that family size is an important determinant of educational aspirations. Best friends' pressure is an important vehicle because it has theoretical implications for reference group theory and for the peer group

sub-culture hypothesis.

As a result, eleven variables were chosen as the main predictor variables: financial help from parents, family size, socio-economic status, academic performance, the belief that school is relevant, belief in educational excellence, self-esteem, best friends' pressure toward additional schooling, parental pressure toward additional schooling, communication with parents on educational matters, and teachers' pressure toward additional schooling.

Definitions of Concepts.

The basic concepts used in this study will be defined or explained in this section. Operational definitions will also be made whenever necessary.

Educational Aspiration is defined as the level of educational attainment a student would like to achieve if there were no external constraints. To obtain the level of aspiration, the subjects were asked: "Supposing you had the necessary abilities, grades, money, etc., how far would you really like to go in school?" (original emphasis).

Educational Expectation is defined as the level of education a student actually intends to attain after considering all possible constraints he may encounter. To obtain the level of educational expectation, the subjects were asked: "Considering your abilities, grades, financial resources, etc., how far do you actually expect to go in school?" (original emphasis).

The measure of Socio-economic Status is based on the "Index of Social Position" scheme first developed by Hollingshead (1957). It is derived from the education and occupation of the father.

The socio-economic status scale is divided into five categories. However, when doing cross-tabulation analyses, social class categories I, II, and III will be collapsed into one single category, the "middle class"; categories IV and V will be collapsed into one single category, the "lower class." This is to insure adequate cell entries necessary to the numerous cross-tabulations.

Financial Help is a measure of the students' perception of their parents' ability to provide financial assistance in helping them reach their school and work goals.

Academic Performance is based on a student's self-reported grade-point-average. It is divided into two categories, above-average and below-average. Our data do not contain information on students' intelligence. However, some writers have suggested that, in terms of deciding future life goals, academic performance is as important as, if not more important than, intelligence. Ginzberg and his associates (1951) maintain that a student characteristically goes through a stage of appraising his chances of success in his future life goals by thinking in terms of the quality of work he has done in relevant school courses. He is usually vague about the concept of intelligence and usually has no way of knowing his own I.Q. scores. But he does know his class standing, and it is likely to be the most important single variable in helping him plan his future. Another study by Rogoff (1961) has shown that the correlation between scholastic performance and scholastic ability (i.e., intelligence) is extremely high.

Parental Pressure is a measure of the students' perception of parental pressure or encouragement toward additional schooling.

Perceived parental pressure is used in this study for both practical

and theoretical reasons. First of all, only information concerning the adolescents' perceived parental influence is available. Theoretically speaking, as has been pointed out by Meier (1969), parental influence can be explicit, implicit, or in the form of "supported autonomy." Actual parental influence may be taken to mean explicit encouragement only, whereas perceived parental influence includes various modes of influence. Furthermore, it is the author's argument that actual encouragement or pressure has little significance if it is not perceived by the adolescents as such. The same argument applies to Teachers' Pressure and Best Friends' Pressure.

Communication with Parents on Education is defined as the extent to which students find it easy to communicate with their parents concerning educational matters.

Academic values consist of two items, namely, the Belief in the Relevance of School, and Belief in Educational Excellence.¹ Relevance of school is a student's perception whether school is a waste of time for the type of work he will be doing. Educational excellence is a measure of the degree of importance a student attaches to outstanding academic performance.

Self-esteem is defined as a positive or negative attitude toward the self. The measure of self-esteem used in this study is a ten-item

¹Many of the other values are found to be highly correlated with either relevance of school or educational excellence. They are therefore excluded from the analysis.

Guttman Scale developed by Rosenberg (1965).²

Family Size is indexed by the number of children a family has. Those families with one to three children are considered small; those with four or more are considered large.

Anticipatory Cognitive Dissonance is the discrepancy or disparity between a person's idealistic aspiration and his realistic expectation. The dissonance is in the anticipatory state because both aspiration and expectation refer to actions or events to take place in the future.

STATISTICAL METHODS

Three statistical techniques will be employed in this study. Partial correlation tests will be used to locate spurious relationships (if any) between social class and both aspiration and expectation. "We may conceive of partial correlation as the relation between two variables X_0 and X_1 after each has been statistically freed of the influence of one or more disturbing variables. Corresponding to this concept, our problem is to rid X_0 and X_1 of specific unwanted effects before measuring the correlation between them" (Schuessler, 1971: 31). If the relationship between social class and aspiration or expectation is the

²The ten evaluative items used to create the self-esteem scale are:

1. I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.
2. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.
3. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.
4. I am able to do things as well as most people.
5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.
6. I like myself.
7. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.
8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.
9. I certainly feel useless at times.
10. At times I think I am no good at all.

result of the fact that social class varies along with some other variables which are the true predictors of aspiration or expectation, when the effects of those other variables are held constant, aspiration or expectation should no longer vary with social class. The reason that partial correlation rather than cross-tabulation analysis is chosen for the purpose is that several intervening variables will have to be controlled simultaneously. If cross-tabulation techniques are used, this type of multi-variate analysis will require an extremely large sample size so that there will be enough cases to fill the numerous cells. It may be argued that Pearson correlations presuppose interval data and thus aren't suitable for the ordinal variables in this study. However, there is no firm agreement on the inadvisability of the use of Pearson correlations with ordinal data.

The second statistical method used in this study is stepwise regression analysis. "Stepwise regression is a powerful variation of multiple regression which provides a means of choosing independent variables which will provide the best prediction possible with the fewest independent variables" (Nie, et al., 1970: 180). In this study, stepwise regression analysis will be used to provide a measure of the independent contribution of each of a series of predictor variables to the variance of a dependent variable. Stepwise regression analysis will be used to discover the different patterns of causal antecedents for aspiration and expectation. The same statistical method will also be used to discover how different variables contribute to the variations of the expectations of two groups of adolescents, those with high aspirations and those with low aspirations. One technical issue requires some comment.

In doing stepwise regression, there are two ways missing values can be handled during the computation: "pairwise deletion" and "listwise deletion." "With pairwise deletion, a case is omitted from the computation of a given coefficient if the value of either of the two variables being considered is missing. . . . Pairwise deletion has the advantage of utilizing as much of the data as possible in the computation of each coefficient. It has the disadvantage, however, of (under some circumstances) producing coefficients which are based on a different number of cases and perhaps on even quite different sub-populations of the file." On the other hand, listwise deletion ". . . has a case omitted from the calculation of all coefficients specified in a single list if a case contains a missing value for any variable entered into that list. In general, listwise deletion has the effect of reducing the number of cases upon which the coefficients are computed" (Nie, et al., 1970: 148). A comparison of the results of the two methods using data from this study shows that the two data-handling procedures produce no significant difference. In other words, missing values are randomly distributed. It is therefore decided that pairwise deletion will be used in order to make use of as much of the data as possible.

Both correlation analysis and stepwise regression analysis provide a single summary statistic describing the strength of association between two variables. Though convenient, these methods often have the disadvantage of hiding information or over-simplifying the more complicated attributes of a variable. A first-order partial correlation, for example, can give a single measure of the degree of co-variation between social class and educational aspiration, controlling for the effect

of sex. However, the partial correlation coefficient sheds no light on the difference between the effects of family social position on middle-class males and on middle-class females. This can be obtained by looking at the joint frequency distributions of the three variables in tabular form. It is then possible to compare the effects of social class on middle-class males and on lower-class males as well as to compare the effects of social class on lower-class males and on lower-class females.

SUMMARY

The data collection procedures and the characteristics of the sample were described in the first part of this chapter. An account was made of how eleven predictor variables were selected on both empirical and theoretical grounds. Theoretical and operational definitions of the major dependent and independent variables were listed. In the final section of this chapter, three statistical techniques, namely, partial correlation analysis, stepwise regression technique, and cross-tabulation analysis, were discussed in terms of their usefulness to the various statistical tests in this study.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

This chapter is organized into six parts. The first section explores the relationships between educational orientations and eleven predictor variables. Part two and three consider the impact of social class on educational orientations. Section three explores the characteristics of high-aspiring and low-aspiring groups. The remainder of the chapter considers the nature and the effect of educational orientation incongruity.

EDUCATIONAL ORIENTATIONS

Tables 2-6 show the relationship between educational expectation and aspiration and the eleven variables chosen for their theoretical relevance. As can be seen in Table 2, eight of the eleven relationships are statistically significant. Socio-economic status and academic performance are the most apparent predictors of educational aspiration (88 per cent of the upper class aspire to a college education and 77 per cent of those with above average grades). Two structural variables, financial help and family size, do not appear to have any influence on the aspirations of youth. This finding provides some support for the argument that aspirations are more closely related to internal psychological forces. Indeed, self-esteem and educational values are closely related to educational aspirations as well. Although parental pressure and the pressure of teachers toward additional schooling is related to

TABLE 2. EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATION BY ELEVEN PREDICTOR VARIABLES

Predictor Variables		Educational Aspiration					
		University		Prof. Sch.		High Sch.	
		%	N	%	N	%	N
Socio-economic Status ¹	Upper	88.2	(82)	11.8	(11)	0.0	(0)
	Middle	72.5	(103)	22.5	(32)	4.9	(7)
	Lower	59.7	(191)	29.4	(94)	10.9	(35)
	(Total)	67.7	(376)	24.7	(137)	7.6	(42)
				$\chi^2 = 31.77, P < .01$			
Financial Help ²	High	63.1	(368)	26.4	(154)	10.5	(61)
	Medium	59.2	(386)	30.2	(197)	10.6	(69)
	Low	56.7	(55)	32.0	(31)	11.3	(11)
	(Total)	60.7	(809)	28.7	(382)	10.6	(141)
				$\chi^2 = 3.06, P = N.S.$			
Family Size ³	Small	63.0	(430)	27.9	(190)	9.1	(62)
	Large	58.1	(397)	29.6	(202)	12.3	(84)
	(Total)	60.6	(827)	28.7	(392)	10.7	(146)
				$\chi^2 = 5.00, P = N.S.$			
Academic Performance ⁴	Above Average	77.1	(378)	20.0	(98)	2.9	(14)
	Below Average	51.1	(429)	33.8	(284)	15.0	(126)
	(Total)	60.7	(807)	28.7	(382)	10.5	(140)
				$\chi^2 = 98.53, P < .01$			

¹The five-category Socio-economic Status is based on the "Index of Social Position" scheme by Hollingshead (1957). It is derived from the education and occupation of the father. In this table, status categories I and II are collapsed into one single category, the Upper Class; status category III becomes the Middle Class; and categories IV and V are collapsed into one single category, the Lower Class.

²Financial Help is based on Q. 17 on p. 6 of the Questionnaire (see Appendix). It is categorized into High, Medium, and Low.

³Family Size is based on Qq. 21-26 on p. 2 of the Questionnaire. Those families with one to three children are considered Small; those with four or more are considered Large.

⁴Academic Performance is based on Q. 69 on p. 16 of the Questionnaire. It is collapsed into two categories, Above Average and Below Average.

TABLE 2. Continued

Predictor Variables		Educational Aspiration					
		University		Prof. Sch.		High Sch.	
		%	N	%	N	%	N
Belief in the Relevance of School ⁵	High	71.1	(495)	23.4	(163)	5.5	(38)
	Low	49.2	(325)	34.6	(229)	16.2	(107)
	(Total)	60.4	(820)	28.9	(392)	10.7	(145)
				$\chi^2 = 78.34,$		$P < .01$	
Belief in Educational Excellence ⁶	High	64.8	(593)	27.5	(252)	7.7	(70)
	Medium	56.5	(178)	29.8	(94)	13.7	(43)
	Low	36.1	(35)	35.1	(34)	28.9	(28)
	(Total)	60.7	(806)	28.6	(380)	10.6	(141)
				$\chi^2 = 55.78,$		$P < .01$	
Self-esteem ⁷	High	66.8	(233)	25.5	(89)	7.7	(27)
	Medium	60.0	(530)	28.8	(255)	11.2	(99)
	Low	47.2	(58)	38.2	(47)	14.6	(18)
	(Total)	60.5	(821)	28.8	(391)	10.6	(144)
				$\chi^2 = 15.90,$		$P < .01$	
Best Friends' Pressure ⁸	High	62.0	(57)	28.3	(26)	9.8	(9)
	Low	60.5	(766)	28.8	(364)	10.7	(136)
	(Total)	60.6	(823)	28.7	(390)	10.7	(145)
				$\chi^2 = 0.11,$		$P = N.S.$	
Parental Pressure ⁹	High	71.8	(237)	23.3	(77)	4.8	(16)
	Medium	63.6	(314)	30.0	(148)	6.5	(32)
	Low	51.4	(257)	30.8	(154)	17.8	(89)
	(Total)	61.0	(808)	28.6	(379)	10.3	(137)
				$\chi^2 = 62.40,$		$P < .01$	

⁵Belief in the Relevance of School is based on Q. 36 on p. 3 of the Questionnaire. It is collapsed into two categories, High and Low.

⁶Belief in Educational Excellence is based on Q. 23 on p. 13 of the Questionnaire. The original four categories are collapsed into High, Medium, and Low.

⁷Self-esteem is based on a ten-item scale developed by Rosenberg (1965). Ten questions (Q. 49 to Q. 58 on p. 8 of the Questionnaire) were asked. The scale is collapsed into three categories.

⁸Best Friends' Pressure is based on Q. 21 on p. 6 of the Questionnaire. The original four categories are collapsed into two.

⁹Parental Pressure is based on Q. 65 and Q. 13 on p. 5 of the Questionnaire. The two measures are merged into a three-category index.

TABLE 2. Continued

Predictor Variables		Educational Aspiration					
		University		Prof. Sch.		High Sch.	
		%	N	%	N	%	N
Communication with Parents on Education ¹⁰	High	64.2	(469)	26.8	(196)	8.9	(65)
	Medium	56.1	(170)	29.7	(90)	14.2	(43)
	Low	58.2	(164)	30.1	(85)	11.7	(33)
	(Total)	61.1	(803)	28.2	(371)	10.7	(141)
				$\chi^2 = 9.81$,		$P < .05$	
Teachers' Pressure ¹¹	High	67.4	(275)	27.0	(110)	5.6	(23)
	Medium	59.8	(308)	29.5	(152)	10.7	(55)
	Low	54.6	(231)	29.8	(126)	15.6	(66)
	(Total)	60.5	(814)	28.8	(388)	10.7	(144)
				$\chi^2 = 25.67$,		$P < .01$	

¹⁰Communication with Parents is based on Q. 23 and Q. 35 on p. 10 of the Questionnaire. The two measures are merged into a three-category index.

¹¹Teachers' Pressure is based on Q. 52 on p. 4 of the Questionnaire. The original four categories are collapsed into three.

educational aspiration, there is no evidence that the pressure of best friends has any impact.

Accordingly, this study calls into question the salience of peer group influence on mobility aspiration as so many other studies have demonstrated (e.g., Alexander and Campbell, 1964; Kandel and Lesser, 1969; Krauss, 1964; McDill and Coleman, 1965; Pavalko and Bishop, 1966; Slocum, 1967). In order to further test the impact of peer group influence on educational aspiration, the relationship between best friends' pressure toward grade improvement and best friends' effort in school and aspiration is examined in Table 3. The relationships are not significant. Indeed, the absence of peer pressure toward grade improvement is more closely related to higher aspiration. Educational ambition

TABLE 3. EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATION BY PEER GROUP INFLUENCE

Peer Group Influence		Educational Aspiration					
		University		Prof. Sch.		High Sch.	
		%	N	%	N	%	N
Best Friends' Pressure toward Grade Improvement	High	40.5	(34)	32.1	(27)	27.4	(23)
	Low	50.4	(685)	31.5	(429)	18.1	(246)
	(Total)	49.8	(719)	31.6	(456)	18.6	(269)
				$\chi^2 = 5.23,$		$P = N.S.$	
Best Friends' Effort in School Work	High	51.6	(493)	31.1	(297)	17.3	(165)
	Low	47.2	(223)	32.0	(151)	20.8	(98)
	(Total)	50.2	(716)	31.4	(448)	18.4	(263)
				$\chi^2 = 3.37,$		$P = N.S.$	

also seems to have little to do with the academic efforts of one's best friends.

Table 4 shows the relationship between the predictor variables and educational expectation. As can be seen, all the relationships except best friends' pressure are statistically significant. As with educational aspiration, the strongest predictors of educational expectation are socio-economic status and academic performance. Comparing the results in Table 4 with those in Table 2 provides insight into the nature of educational orientation. Although the percentage differences are small, it is clear, for example, that family size and financial help have a marked impact on realistic educational goals. This finding provides further support for the argument that aspiration is more affected by psychological forces than by structural factors and that expectation is influenced by both structural and psychological variables.

TABLE 4. EDUCATIONAL EXPECTATION BY ELEVEN PREDICTOR VARIABLES

Predictor Variables		Educational Expectation					
		University		Prof. Sch.		High Sch.	
		%	N	%	N	%	N
Socio-economic Status	Upper	76.5	(65)	21.2	(18)	2.4	(2)
	Middle	52.9	(73)	34.1	(47)	13.0	(18)
	Lower	38.5	(120)	36.9	(115)	24.7	(77)
	(Total)	48.2	(258)	33.6	(180)	18.1	(97)
		$\chi^2 = 46.77, P < .01$					
Financial Help	High	47.7	(272)	31.9	(182)	20.4	(116)
	Medium	36.9	(226)	37.9	(232)	25.2	(154)
	Low	23.4	(22)	39.4	(37)	37.2	(35)
	(Total)	40.8	(520)	35.3	(451)	23.9	(305)
		$\chi^2 = 29.78, P < .01$					
Family Size	Small	45.0	(295)	36.5	(239)	18.5	(121)
	Large	36.0	(236)	34.5	(226)	29.5	(193)
	(Total)	40.5	(531)	35.5	(465)	24.0	(314)
		$\chi^2 = 23.43, P < .01$					
Academic Performance	Above Average	62.5	(292)	29.3	(137)	8.1	(38)
	Below Average	28.5	(231)	38.8	(314)	32.7	(265)
	(Total)	41.0	(523)	35.3	(451)	23.7	(303)
		$\chi^2 = 166.53, P < .01$					
Belief in Educational Excellence	High	45.4	(398)	34.8	(305)	19.8	(174)
	Medium	32.6	(99)	38.8	(118)	28.6	(87)
	Low	27.2	(25)	29.3	(27)	43.5	(40)
	(Total)	41.0	(522)	35.3	(450)	23.6	(301)
		$\chi^2 = 39.58, P < .01$					
Belief in the Relevance of School	High	51.2	(338)	32.4	(214)	16.4	(108)
	Low	29.9	(192)	38.3	(246)	31.9	(205)
	(Total)	40.7	(530)	35.3	(460)	24.0	(313)
		$\chi^2 = 72.30, P < .01$					
Self-esteem	High	49.4	(169)	30.7	(105)	19.9	(68)
	Medium	39.3	(327)	36.6	(305)	24.1	(201)
	Low	25.0	(32)	40.6	(52)	34.4	(44)
	(Total)	40.5	(528)	35.5	(462)	24.0	(313)
		$\chi^2 = 26.23, P < .01$					
Best Friends' Pressure	High	41.2	(35)	43.5	(37)	15.3	(13)
	Low	40.7	(495)	34.9	(425)	24.4	(297)
	(Total)	40.7	(530)	35.5	(462)	23.8	(310)
		$\chi^2 = 4.43, P = N.S.$					

TABLE 4. Continued

Predictor Variables		Educational Expectation					
		University		Prof. Sch.		High Sch.	
		%	N	%	N	%	N
Parental Pressure	High	50.8	(164)	32.8	(106)	16.4	(53)
	Medium	43.7	(202)	39.0	(180)	17.3	(80)
	Low	31.6	(154)	34.5	(168)	33.9	(165)
	(Total)	40.9	(520)	35.7	(454)	23.4	(298)
				$\chi^2 = 58.06,$		$P < .01$	
Communication with Parents on Education	High	46.7	(327)	34.4	(241)	18.9	(132)
	Medium	33.1	(95)	35.5	(102)	31.4	(90)
	Low	34.9	(96)	36.0	(99)	29.1	(80)
	(Total)	41.0	(518)	35.0	(442)	23.9	(302)
				$\chi^2 = 29.79,$		$P < .01$	
Teachers' Pressure	High	43.2	(176)	38.3	(156)	18.4	(75)
	Medium	40.7	(200)	35.6	(175)	23.6	(116)
	Low	37.5	(149)	33.0	(131)	29.5	(117)
	(Total)	40.5	(525)	35.7	(462)	23.8	(308)
				$\chi^2 = 13.54,$		$P < .01$	

It is also of interest that the percentage differences between the proportion aspiring toward a university education and those who actually expect to complete college vary considerably among the different predictor variables. Among upper social class students, for example, the difference is about 11 per cent (88.2 and 76.5 per cent) compared to a difference of more than 24 per cent among students who perceive high teacher pressure (67.4 and 43.2 per cent). Similarly, the differences are about 15 per cent among above-average students compared to 21 per cent among students who experience high parental pressure. This evidence suggests that socio-economic status and academic performance are more important predictors of both educational aspiration and expectation, and particularly expectation.

Table 5 assesses the independent and relative contribution of each of the eleven predictor variables to the variations in educational

TABLE 5. PROPORTIONS OF EXPLAINED VARIANCE IN EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATION AND EXPECTATION BY ELEVEN PREDICTOR VARIABLES

Predictor Variables	Percent Variance Explained Educational Aspiration %	Percent Variance Explained Educational Expectation %
Socio-economic Status	4.0	4.4
Financial Help	0.2	0.5
Family Size	0.1	0.9
Academic Performance	8.4	13.2
Belief in the Relevance of School	3.6	2.8
Belief in Educational Excellence	1.0	0.3
Self-esteem	0.4	0.5
Best Friends' Pressure	0.1	0.0
Parental Pressure	2.5	2.2
Communication with Parents on Education	0.1	0.7
Teachers' Pressure	0.1	0.0
Total Variance Explained	20.5	25.5

aspiration and expectation by means of stepwise regression analysis. About 20 per cent of the variance in educational aspiration is accounted for by the eleven predictive factors used. Academic performance accounts for more than eight per cent of the variance. The second most important variable is socio-economic status whose independent contribution to the variance in aspiration is four per cent. Following socio-economic status are the belief in the relevance of school and parental pressure which explain 3.5 per cent and 2.5 per cent of the variance, respectively. The remaining seven predictive factors together contribute less than

two per cent to the explained variation. As can be seen from the second column in Table 5, a total of 25.5 per cent of the variance in educational expectation is accounted for by the predictors used. Slightly more than half of the explained variance is accounted for by one single factor--academic performance. Socio-economic status is second in importance with an independent contribution of more than four per cent to the variance in the dependent variable. About three per cent is accounted for by the belief in the relevance of school and another two per cent of the variance is predicted by parental pressure. The remaining seven variables explain less than three per cent of the variation with family size being the most important.

Comparing the patterns of causal antecedents of aspiration and expectation as revealed by the stepwise regression tests, the differences are less marked than were expected. A larger portion of the variance in expectation than in aspiration is accounted for by the predictive factors. This is not surprising in view of the fact that there are more variables significantly associated with expectation than with aspiration. In both cases, 90 per cent of the variation is accounted for by the same four variables, namely, academic performance, socio-economic status, the belief in the relevance of school, and parental pressure. The order of importance is the same for both aspiration and expectation. With the exception of academic performance, the amount of explained variance in expectation by socio-economic status, the belief in the relevance of school, and parental pressure differs only slightly from the amount of explained variance in aspiration predicted by the same three variables.

Several studies have shown that time factors or, in other words, grade level is an important variable in understanding educational orientations. Cutright (1960), for example, shows that freshman girls in high schools are different in their college-going intentions from girls in the higher grades. Brookover (1967) has found that correlations between educational aspirations and academic achievement fluctuate, while correlations between educational plans and academic performance decrease systematically from grade 8 to 11. Grade 7 students, on the whole, are more heterogeneous both in terms of ability and social background. In contrast, grade 12 students, as a result of attrition, represent a more homogeneous group. They should be more alike in terms of academic ability, social class background, etc.. It is therefore possible that factors other than academic performance and social position would play a more important role in accounting for the variance in educational orientations of grade 12 students. To explore this possibility, stepwise regression analysis was also performed on both grade 7 and grade 12 students (see Table 6).

The first two columns in Table 6 show the proportions of explained variance in aspiration and expectation of grade 7 students by the eleven predictor variables. As can be seen, the total explained variance doesn't differ for aspiration and expectation. As before, academic performance contributes the most to the total variance in both cases. Socio-economic status, however, is less important than family size in predicting educational expectations. It seems reasonable that grade 7 students would assign considerable importance to the more visible structural factors in realistically assessing their future chances. It is surprising, however, that financial help appears to be of little

TABLE 6. PROPORTIONS OF EXPLAINED VARIANCE IN EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS AND EXPECTATIONS OF 7TH AND 12TH GRADE STUDENTS BY ELEVEN PREDICTOR VARIABLES

Predictor Variables	Percent Variance Explained			
	Aspiration (Grade 7) %	Expectation (Grade 7) %	Aspiration (Grade 12) %	Expectation (Grade 12) %
Socio-economic Status	4.7	2.9	4.0	5.3
Financial Help	0.3	-	0.1	3.0
Family Size	0.3	3.2	-	-
Academic Performance	8.9	9.1	10.1	17.2
Belief in the Relevance of School	0.8	0.6	2.7	2.7
Belief in Educational Excellence	2.8	2.4	0.4	0.1
Self-esteem	1.3	1.7	1.4	1.1
Friends' Pressure	0.4	0.1	-	0.1
Parental Pressure	2.1	0.9	5.1	3.6
Communication with Parents on Education	-	0.3	-	0.5
Teachers' Pressure	0.2	0.1	-	-
Total Variance Explained	21.8	21.3	23.8	33.6

consequence. Among grade 12 students, the difference in total explained variation for educational aspiration and expectation is pronounced. As can be seen, the major source of the difference is the contribution of academic performance. Grade-point-average explains 10.1 per cent of the

variation in educational aspiration and 17.2 per cent of the variation in expectation. The independent contribution of socio-economic status is considerable in both cases. Parental pressure is of greater consequence for aspirations and financial help and family size appear to be salient explanatory factors in educational expectation. Thus the prediction that factors other than scholastic performance and socio-economic position would play a greater role in predicting the variations in educational orientations of grade 12 students has not been substantiated.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS AND EDUCATIONAL ORIENTATIONS

Table 7 presents the zero-order correlation matrix of the eleven predictor variables and educational aspiration and educational expectation. As can be seen, seven of the predictor variables are significantly correlated (at .001 level) with educational aspiration and nine variables with educational expectation. Of the remaining 55 relationships, 19 are significantly correlated. The more important findings are summarized below.

1. Socio-economic status is significantly related to financial help and academic performance.
2. Financial help is significantly related to family size.
3. Parental pressure is significantly related to teachers' pressure, best friends' pressure, communication with parents, and educational values concerning the relevance of school and educational excellence.
4. Communication with parents is significantly related to academic performance, self-esteem, and the two educational values.
5. Teachers' pressure is significantly related to best friends' pressure and the relevance of school.
6. Academic performance is significantly related to self-esteem and the educational values.

TABLE 7. ZERO ORDER CORRELATION MATRIX

	Variable No.	X ₂	X ₃	X ₄	X ₅	X ₆	X ₇	X ₈	X ₉	X ₁₀	X ₁₁	X ₁₂	X ₁₃
SES	X ₁	.224*	.027	.018	.082	.045	.003	.283*	.005	.096	.105*	.274*	.303*
Financial Help	X ₂	1.000	.110*	.056	.031	-.035	-.051	.043	.012	-.008	.029	.021	.145*
Family Size	X ₃		1.000	.048	.024	.003	-.030	.041	.006	.056	.019	.057	.127*
Parental Pressure	X ₄			1.000	-.145*	.268*	.124*	.023	-.018	.096*	.086*	.183*	.175*
Communication with Parents on Education	X ₅				1.000	.046	.018	.147*	.101*	.108*	.117*	.079*	.137*
Teachers' Pressure	X ₆					1.000	.184*	.030	-.001	.114*	.044	.111*	.069
Best Friends' Pressure	X ₇						1.000	.011	-.023	.024	-.015	-.000	.032
Academic Performance	X ₈							1.000	.122*	.181*	.129*	.290*	.363*
Self-esteem	X ₉								1.000	.139*	.065	.112*	.129*
Belief in the Relevance of School	X ₁₀									1.000	.152*	.247*	.241*
Belief in Educational Excellence	X ₁₁										1.000	.183*	.156*
Educational Aspiration	X ₁₂											1.000	.687*
Educational Expectation	X ₁₃												1.000

* = significant at .001 level

† = significant at .002 - .005 level

7. Self-esteem is significantly related to the belief in the relevance of school.

Without considering educational orientation, it is apparent that socio-economic status, academic performance, parental pressure, and financial help exercise the most prominent influence among the eleven predictor variables. Accordingly, it is appropriate to assess the possibility of spuriousness. Partial correlation analysis was used to test whether the relationship between socio-economic status and educational orientations, controlling for financial help, academic performance, parental pressure, and the belief in the relevance of school, is spurious. The tests were separately performed on aspirations and expectations. By computing a series of first-order, second-order, third-order, and fourth-order partials, one can determine whether the original relationship is spurious.

Table 8 shows the results of the partial correlation tests. The first-order partial between SES and aspiration is not reduced by controlling for financial help ($r = .277$). Financial help strengthens the relationship minimally. Neither parental pressure nor the relevance of school significantly reduces the relationship between SES and aspiration. Academic performance, however, reduces the correlation to .209, suggesting that both SES and academic performance have an independent effect on education aspiration. When the effects of both financial help and academic achievement are controlled, the second-order partial is .213, greater than the first-order partial when only academic performance is controlled. When the effects of parental pressure are also controlled, the partial is .216. Finally, when the effects of all four intervening variables is partialled out, the fourth-order partial is .211.

TABLE 8. PARTIAL CORRELATION MATRIX: EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATION AND EXPECTATION BY SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS, BY FOUR SELECTED PREDICTOR VARIABLES

	Educational Orientation*	
	Aspiration	Expectation
By Socio-economic Status	.274	.303
By Financial Help	.277	.280
By Academic Performance	.209	.224
By Parental Pressure	.276	.304
By School Relevance	.260	.290
By Financial Help, Academic Performance	.213	.200
By Financial Help, Parental Pressure	.280	.283
By Financial Help, School Relevance	.261	.265
By Academic Performance, Parental Pressure	.211	.225
By Academic Performance, School Relevance	.204	.219
By Parental Pressure, School Relevance	.262	.292
By Financial Help, Academic Performance, Parental Pressure	.216	.203
By Financial Help, Academic Performance, School Relevance	.207	.194
By Financial Help, Parental Pressure, School Relevance	.266	.269
By Academic Performance, Parental Pressure, School Relevance	.206	.221
By Financial Help, Academic Performance, Parental Pressure, School Relevance	.211	.197

*All relationships are significant at .001 level.

This indicates that the relationship between socio-economic status and educational aspiration, though weakened to a certain extent when the four intervening variables are controlled, is not a spurious one.

The same procedures were performed with respect to the relationship between socio-economic status and educational expectation. Results can be found in the second column in Table 8. As was seen in Table 7, the relationship between academic performance and educational expectation is stronger than that between SES and expectation. However, the latter relationship does not disappear when the effects of academic performance are controlled. When both financial help and academic performance are controlled, the partial is further reduced to .200. When the effects of parental pressure is also controlled, the partial correlation remains at roughly the same level. And when the belief in the relevance of school is added to the control list, the fourth-order partial is only slightly reduced to .197. Though the relationship between SES and expectation has been reduced, it remains strong. It is possible to say that the relationships between socio-economic status and educational expectation and aspiration are not spurious.

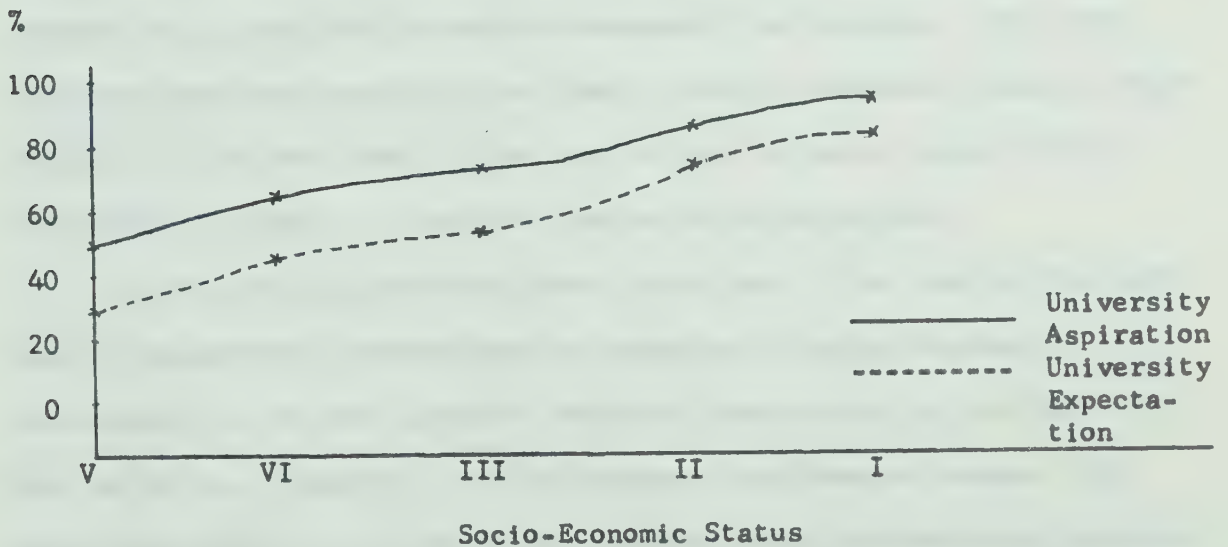
SOCIAL CLASS DIFFERENCES IN THE DISCREPANCY BETWEEN ASPIRATION AND EXPECTATION

Figure 1 shows the percentage of respondents in each socio-economic category who have university aspirations and expectations. The socio-economic status scale is categorized into five status levels. As is evident from Figure 1 and Table 9, the aspiration-expectation discrepancy exists among subjects of both higher and lower statuses. This suggests

TABLE 9. SOCIAL CLASS DIFFERENCES IN PERCENTAGE DISCREPANCY BETWEEN UNIVERSITY ASPIRATIONS AND EXPECTATIONS

Socio-economic Status	Aspiration %	Expectation %	Discrepancy %
I Upper	91.1	79.5	11.6
II Upper-Middle	85.4	73.2	12.2
III Middle	72.5	52.9	19.6
IV Lower-Middle	64.2	42.4	21.8
V Lower	47.7	27.2	20.5

FIGURE 1. SOCIAL CLASS DIFFERENCES IN PERCENTAGE DISCREPANCY BETWEEN UNIVERSITY ASPIRATIONS AND EXPECTATIONS



that there are people from every socio-economic grouping who have incongruous educational expectations and aspirations. As expected, there are fewer students from families of upper statuses with aspiration-expectation discrepancies.

EXPLAINED VARIANCE IN THE EXPECTATION OF HIGH- AND LOW-ASPIRING GROUPS

The question to be asked in this section is: What factors can best predict or explain the variance in a person's educational expectation when his aspiration is known? Table 10 shows the proportions of variance in educational expectations of high-aspiring and low-aspiring students explained by the eleven predictors. The data in the table suggest that it is difficult to predict the expectations of the high-aspiring and the low-aspiring students on the basis of the eleven chosen predictor variables. Less than 10 per cent of the variance in the expectations of the low-aspiring students is accounted for by the predictive factors used. Of the explained variance, over half is accounted for by one single variable--academic performance. The other two more important variables are family size and parental pressure which explain 1.8 per cent and 1.2 per cent of the variance, respectively. The predictive power of the other variables is negligible.

As for the high-aspiring group, more than 15 per cent of the variance in educational expectations is explained. Again, academic performance is the most powerful variable, explaining 7.5 per cent of the variation. Financial help and academic performance account for about four-fifths of the explained variance among high-aspiring students. Family size seems to play a more important role among low-aspiring students. The small proportions of total explained variation are probably a consequence of the high correlation between aspirations and expectations.

TABLE 10. PROPORTIONS OF EXPLAINED VARIANCE IN EDUCATIONAL EXPECTATIONS OF HIGH-ASPIRING AND LOW-ASPIRING STUDENTS BY ELEVEN PREDICTOR VARIABLES

Predictor Variables	Percent Variance Explained	
	Expectations of High-aspiring Students %	Expectations of Low-aspiring Students %
Socio-economic Status	0.6	0.2
Financial Help	4.4	0.5
Family Size	-	1.8
Academic Performance	7.5	5.3
Belief in the Relevance of School	1.0	-
Belief in Educational Excellence	0.5	0.1
Self-esteem	0.7	0.1
Friends' Pressure	0.1	0.1
Parental Pressure	0.2	1.2
Communication with Parents on Education	0.3	-
Teachers' Pressure	0.3	-
Total Variance Explained	15.6	9.3

EDUCATIONAL ORIENTATION INCONGRUITY

Educational orientation congruity is categorized into consistent orientation (university aspiration and university expectation), inconsistent orientation (university aspiration and professional school or junior college expectation), and highly inconsistent orientation (university aspiration and high school or less expectation). In some cases, in order to maximize the number of cases in the cells, the inconsistent

and the highly inconsistent orientations are collapsed into one single category. An additional variable, school program, i.e., whether a student is in the college preparatory program or in the general program, is added to the list of independent variables. The basic question is: What factors account for consistent and inconsistent educational orientations?

From Table 11, one can see that eight of the twelve independent variables are significantly related to a person's educational orientation congruity. Family size, best friends' pressure, parental pressure, and teacher's pressure have no significant effect on a person's orientation congruity. Structural, academic, and psychological sources of influence are important. Comparing the various variables affecting educational aspiration to those affecting orientation congruity, one will notice that significant others' influence, with the exception of best friends' pressure, is important for aspirations, but has no effect for orientation congruity.

Since the aspiration-expectation discrepancy is smaller for middle-class subjects than for lower-class subjects and since the middle-class is different from the lower class in many respects, one is inclined to ask if the factors affecting middle-class orientation congruity are the same as those affecting lower-class orientation congruity. Data from Tables 12 and 13 will help answer this question. Table 12 shows the relationship between the predictor variables and the educational orientation congruity of middle-class subjects. Academic achievement and school program are the only two variables significantly related to orientation congruity. This implies that if a middle-class student aspires to university education but does not expect to attend

TABLE 11. EDUCATIONAL ORIENTATION CONGRUITY BY TWELVE PREDICTOR VARIABLES

Predictor Variables		Orientation Congruity					
		Consistent		Inconsistent		Highly Inconsistent	
		%	N	%	N	%	N
Socio-economic Status	Upper	86.3	(63)	13.7	(10)	0.0	(0)
	Middle	70.5	(67)	24.2	(23)	5.3	(5)
	Lower	63.6	(110)	29.5	(51)	6.9	(12)
	(Total)	70.4	(240)	24.6	(84)	5.0	(17)
				$\chi^2 = 13.94,$		$P < .01$	
Financial Help	High	74.8	(249)	21.0	(70)	4.2	(14)
	Medium	60.4	(209)	30.6	(106)	9.0	(31)
	Low	38.5	(20)	40.4	(21)	21.2	(11)
	(Total)	65.4	(478)	26.9	(197)	7.7	(56)
				$\chi^2 = 39.45,$		$P < .01$	
Family Size	Small	67.2	(264)	27.0	(106)	5.9	(23)
	Large	63.6	(225)	27.1	(96)	9.3	(33)
	(Total)	65.5	(489)	27.0	(202)	7.5	(56)
				$\chi^2 = 3.36,$		$P = N.S.$	
Academic Performance	Above Average	78.9	(277)	18.2	(64)	2.8	(10)
	Below Average	53.8	(205)	34.4	(131)	11.8	(45)
	(Total)	65.8	(482)	26.6	(195)	7.5	(55)
				$\chi^2 = 54.91,$		$P < .01$	
School Program:	College Prep.	75.4	(181)	20.8	(50)	3.7	(9)
	General	52.5	(62)	34.7	(41)	12.7	(15)
	(Total)	67.9	(243)	25.4	(91)	6.7	(24)
				$\chi^2 = 21.60,$		$P < .01$	
Belief in the Relevance of School	High	71.3	(321)	23.1	(104)	5.6	(25)
	Low	57.4	(167)	32.0	(93)	10.7	(31)
	(Total)	65.9	(488)	26.6	(197)	7.6	(56)
				$\chi^2 = 16.50,$		$P < .01$	
Belief in Educational Excellence	High	69.4	(372)	24.4	(131)	6.2	(33)
	Low	56.3	(108)	32.8	(63)	10.9	(21)
	(Total)	65.9	(480)	26.6	(194)	7.4	(54)
				$\chi^2 = 11.78,$		$P < .01$	
Self-esteem	High	74.3	(159)	20.6	(44)	5.1	(11)
	Medium	62.9	(300)	28.9	(138)	8.2	(39)
	Low	53.8	(28)	34.6	(18)	11.5	(6)
	(Total)	65.5	(487)	26.9	(200)	7.5	(56)
				$\chi^2 = 12.17,$		$P < .05$	

TABLE 11. Continued

Predictor Variables		Orientation Congruity					
		Consistent		Inconsistent		Highly Inconsistent	
		%	N	%	N	%	N
Best Friends' Pressure	High	61.8	(34)	36.4	(20)	1.8	(1)
	Low	66.0	(455)	26.3	(181)	7.7	(53)
	(Total)	65.7	(489)	27.0	(201)	7.3	(54)
				$\chi^2 = 4.48,$		P = N.S.	
Parental Pressure	High	68.9	(153)	26.1	(58)	5.0	(11)
	Medium	65.8	(187)	26.1	(74)	8.1	(23)
	Low	61.8	(139)	28.9	(65)	9.3	(21)
	(Total)	65.5	(479)	26.9	(197)	7.5	(55)
				$\chi^2 = 4.38,$		P = N.S.	
Communication with Parents on Education	High	70.2	(304)	24.0	(104)	5.8	(25)
	Medium	59.2	(87)	31.3	(46)	9.5	(14)
	Low	58.6	(85)	29.7	(43)	11.7	(17)
	(Total)	65.7	(476)	26.6	(193)	7.7	(56)
				$\chi^2 = 11.96,$		P < .05	
Teachers' Pressure	High	63.2	(163)	29.1	(75)	7.8	(20)
	Medium	67.3	(187)	26.3	(73)	6.5	(18)
	Low	66.3	(134)	25.7	(52)	7.9	(16)
	(Total)	65.6	(484)	27.1	(200)	7.3	(54)
				$\chi^2 = 1.38,$		P = N.S.	

TABLE 12. ELEVEN VARIABLES BY EDUCATIONAL ORIENTATION CONGRUITY
AMONG MIDDLE-CLASS STUDENTS

Predictor Variables		Orientation Congruity					
		Consistent Orientation		Inconsistent Orientation		(Total)	
		%	N	%	N	%	N
Financial Help	High	58.1	(75)	50.0	(19)	56.3	(94)
	Medium	38.8	(50)	47.4	(18)	40.7	(68)
	Low	3.1	(4)	2.6	(1)	3.0	(5)
				$\chi^2 = 0.90,$		$P = N.S.$	
Family Size	Small	60.8	(79)	60.5	(23)	60.7	(102)
	Large	39.2	(51)	39.5	(15)	39.3	(66)
				$\chi^2 = 0.03,$		$P = N.S.$	
Academic Performance	Above Average	73.6	(95)	43.2	(16)	66.9	(111)
	Below Average	26.4	(34)	56.8	(21)	33.1	(55)
				$\chi^2 = 10.66,$		$P < .01$	
School Program:	College Prep.	89.2	(66)	50.0	(8)	82.2	(74)
	General	10.8	(8)	50.0	(8)	17.8	(16)
				$\chi^2 = 11.27,$		$P < .01$	
Belief in the Relevance of School	High	73.8	(96)	56.8	(21)	70.1	(117)
	Low	26.2	(34)	43.2	(16)	29.9	(50)
				$\chi^2 = 3.24,$		$P = N.S.$	
Belief in Educational Excellence	High	79.1	(102)	73.7	(28)	77.8	(130)
	Low	20.9	(27)	26.3	(10)	22.2	(37)
				$\chi^2 = 0.23,$		$P = N.S.$	
Self-esteem	High	30.8	(40)	21.6	(8)	28.7	(48)
	Medium	62.3	(81)	67.6	(25)	63.5	(106)
	Low	6.9	(9)	10.8	(4)	7.8	(13)
				$\chi^2 = 1.52,$		$P = N.S.$	
Best Friends'	High	7.7	(10)	8.1	(3)	7.8	(13)
	Low	92.3	(120)	91.9	(34)	92.2	(154)
				$\chi^2 = 0.07,$		$P = N.S.$	
Parental Pressure	High	27.0	(34)	13.2	(5)	23.8	(39)
	Medium	42.1	(53)	47.4	(18)	43.3	(71)
	Low	31.0	(39)	39.5	(15)	32.9	(54)
				$\chi^2 = 3.18,$		$P = N.S.$	
Communication with Parents on Education	High	72.9	(94)	64.9	(24)	71.1	(118)
	Medium	19.4	(25)	21.6	(8)	19.9	(33)
	Low	7.8	(10)	13.5	(5)	9.0	(15)
				$\chi^2 = 1.39,$		$P = N.S.$	
Teachers' Pressure	High	31.5	(41)	37.8	(14)	32.9	(55)
	Medium	44.6	(58)	27.0	(10)	40.7	(68)
	Low	23.8	(31)	35.1	(13)	26.3	(44)
				$\chi^2 = 3.93,$		$P = N.S.$	

TABLE 13. ELEVEN VARIABLES BY EDUCATIONAL ORIENTATION CONGRUITY
AMONG LOWER-CLASS STUDENTS

Predictor Variables		Orientation Congruity					
		Consistent Orientation		Inconsistent Orientation		(Total)	
		%	N	%	N	%	N
Financial Help	High	39.3	(42)	39.3	(24)	39.3	(66)
	Medium	55.1	(59)	49.2	(30)	53.0	(89)
	Low	5.6	(6)	11.5	(7)	7.7	(13)
				$\chi^2 = 1.99,$		$P = N.S.$	
Family Size	Small	57.3	(63)	52.4	(33)	55.5	(96)
	Large	42.7	(47)	47.6	(30)	44.5	(77)
				$\chi^2 = 0.22,$		$P = N.S.$	
Academic Performance	Above Average	53.3	(57)	26.2	(16)	43.5	(73)
	Below Average	46.7	(50)	73.8	(45)	56.5	(95)
				$\chi^2 = 10.48,$		$P < .01$	
School Program:	College Prep.	72.7	(40)	50.0	(15)	64.7	(55)
	General	27.3	(15)	50.0	(15)	35.3	(30)
				$\chi^2 = 3.45,$		$P = N.S.$	
Belief in the Relevance of School	High	64.5	(71)	59.7	(37)	62.8	(108)
	Low	35.5	(39)	40.3	(25)	37.2	(64)
				$\chi^2 = 0.22,$		$P = N.S.$	
Belief in Educational Excellence	High	75.9	(82)	65.6	(40)	72.2	(122)
	Low	24.1	(26)	34.4	(21)	27.8	(47)
				$\chi^2 = 1.60,$		$P = N.S.$	
Self-esteem	High	41.7	(45)	19.0	(12)	33.3	(57)
	Medium	55.6	(60)	74.6	(47)	62.6	(107)
	Low	2.8	(3)	6.3	(4)	4.1	(7)
				$\chi^2 = 9.65,$		$P < .01$	
Friends' Pressure	High	4.5	(5)	9.5	(6)	6.4	(11)
	Low	95.5	(105)	90.5	(57)	93.6	(162)
				$\chi^2 = 0.94,$		$P = N.S.$	
Parental Pressure	High	27.5	(30)	26.2	(16)	27.1	(46)
	Medium	34.9	(38)	44.3	(27)	38.2	(65)
	Low	37.6	(41)	29.5	(18)	34.7	(59)
				$\chi^2 = 1.67,$		$P = N.S.$	
Communication with Parents on Education	High	72.0	(77)	43.5	(27)	61.5	(104)
	Medium	20.6	(22)	32.3	(20)	24.9	(42)
	Low	7.5	(8)	24.2	(15)	13.6	(23)
				$\chi^2 = 15.37,$		$P < .01$	
Teachers' Pressure	High	32.1	(35)	41.9	(26)	35.7	(61)
	Medium	40.4	(44)	37.1	(23)	39.2	(67)
	Low	27.5	(30)	21.0	(13)	25.1	(43)
				$\chi^2 = 1.85,$		$P = N.S.$	

university, it is mainly due to his unsatisfactory academic performance and to the fact that he is not enrolling in a college preparatory program. One would expect that since middle-class subjects have no or very little structural impediments with respect to obtaining a university education, inconsistent orientations should be a consequence of individual psychological factors such as low self-esteem or unfavorable academic values. However, this expectation has not been borne out, since variables such as the belief in the relevance of school, the belief in educational excellence, and self-esteem, are not significantly related to orientation congruity.

Turning to the data on lower class (see Table 13), one can see that the factors affecting orientation congruity for the lower class are quite different from those affecting middle-class orientation congruity. Three factors, namely, academic performance, communication with parents on educational matters, and self-esteem, are significantly related to orientation congruity. School program, which is significant with respect to middle-class individuals, has no significant effect on the orientation congruity of the lower-class subjects. Whereas the reasons of inconsistent orientations for middle-class subjects are mainly academic in nature, the reasons for inconsistency for lower-class subjects are multi-dimensional. If a lower-class student aspires to a college education but doesn't expect to go, it is not only because of his poor scholastic performance, but also because of the lack of parental influence on educational matters and low self-concept. This may be one of the reasons for the greater proportions of lower-class students with aspiration-expectation discrepancies. Compared to a middle-class student, a lower-class student may have more difficulty in maintaining

both high aspiration and high expectation because he is vulnerable to more than one source of impediment.

The next question to be asked is: Are consistent orientation groups (and inconsistent orientation groups) of both classes similar in terms of social background, ability, and attitudes? To answer this question, the middle-class consistent group and the lower-class consistent group are compared in terms of eleven chosen independent variables. Likewise, the middle-class inconsistent group are compared to the lower-class inconsistent group. In other words, the first column in Table 12 will be compared to the first column in Table 13; and the second column in Table 12 will be compared to the second column in Table 13. Table 14 shows which of the relationships are statistically significant.

The two consistent groups differ significantly in four aspects, namely, financial help, academic performance, self-esteem, and school program. The middle-class consistent group has a higher percentage of people with above-average academic achievement and has more people enrolling in the college preparatory program. The middle-class consistent group also has a higher percentage of people who can expect considerable financial assistance from their parents. However, the lower-class consistent group has a greater proportion of people with high self-esteem. The last characteristic is quite important since earlier results indicate that self-esteem does not affect middle-class subjects' orientation congruity but does effect the orientation congruity of lower-class subjects. The fact that the consistent groups of the two classes differ significantly in terms of financial help should be understood in relation to earlier findings which indicate that financial help from parents

TABLE 14. CHI-SQUARE TESTS FOR ELEVEN VARIABLES BY EDUCATIONAL ORIENTATION CONGRUITY BY SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS*

Predictor Variables	Orientation Congruity	
	Consistent Middle-Class & Consistent Lower-Class	Inconsistent Middle-Class & Inconsistent Lower-Class
Financial Help	$\chi^2 = 8.47$ $P < .01$	$\chi^2 = 2.89$ $P = N.S.$
Family Size	$\chi^2 = 0.17$ $P = N.S.$	$\chi^2 = 0.35$ $P = N.S.$
Academic Performance	$\chi^2 = 9.72$ $P < .01$	$\chi^2 = 2.31$ $P = N.S.$
School Program	$\chi^2 = 4.77$ $P < .05$	$\chi^2 = 0.10$ $P = N.S.$
Belief in the Relevance of School	$\chi^2 = 2.01$ $P = N.S.$	$\chi^2 = 0.01$ $P = N.S.$
Belief in Educational Excellence	$\chi^2 = 0.18$ $P = N.S.$	$\chi^2 = 0.39$ $P = N.S.$
Self-esteem	$\chi^2 = 4.43$ $P < .05$	$\chi^2 = 0.82$ $P = N.S.$
Best Friends' Pressure	$\chi^2 = 0.54$ $P = N.S.$	$\chi^2 = 0.02$ $P = N.S.$
Parental Pressure	$\chi^2 = 1.55$ $P = N.S.$	$\chi^2 = 2.63$ $P = N.S.$
Communication with Parents on Education	$\chi^2 = 0.05$ $P = N.S.$	$\chi^2 = 4.28$ $P = N.S.$
Teachers' Pressure	$\chi^2 = 0.57$ $P = N.S.$	$\chi^2 = 2.57$ $P = N.S.$

*This table presents the tests of significance for the relationship between middle-class and lower-class consistent and inconsistent students for each of the eleven predictor variables. The data are derived from Tables 12 and 13.

does not significantly affect the orientation congruity of both middle-class and lower-class students.

Turning to the middle-class and lower-class inconsistent orientation groups, there is no significant difference at all between the two groups. In other words, in terms of various social, academic, and psychological characteristics, the inconsistent groups of both classes are very much alike. The data show that there are greater proportions of middle-class

subjects who can expect considerable financial support from their parents, who have better grade-point-averages, and have frequent communication with parents on matters related to education. On the other hand, there are greater proportions of lower-class students who experience strong parental pressure toward additional schooling and pressure from teachers. These relationships, however, are not statistically significant. It is possible to say that there are some major differences between the middle-class consistent group and the lower-class consistent group; but there are no significant differences between the inconsistent groups of both classes.

The next task is to see whether sexual differences affect the relationships between various independent variables and orientation congruity. As before, the female consistent groups will be compared to the female inconsistent group, and the male consistent group will be compared to the male inconsistent group. Table 15 compares the consistent females with the inconsistent females in terms of the independent variables.

Six of the twelve relationships are statistically significant. Thirty-six per cent of the consistent females belong to the upper-middle class but only 10 per cent of the inconsistent females have the same class background. Only 28 per cent of the consistent group have below-average grades, but 58 per cent of the inconsistent group are below-average. On the whole, the female consistent group differs from the female inconsistent group in structural and academic characteristics. The former group has an advantage over the latter in social class background, financial assistance, academic performance, and school program. With the exception of the belief in the relevance of school, psychological

TABLE 15. TWELVE VARIABLES BY EDUCATIONAL CONGRUITY AMONG FEMALES

Predictor Variables		Orientation Congruity					
		Consistent Orientation		Inconsistent Orientation		(Total)	
		%	N	%	N	%	N
Socio-economic Status	Upper	36.1	(35)	10.0	(5)	27.2	(40)
	Middle	23.7	(23)	38.0	(19)	28.6	(42)
	Lower	40.2	(39)	52.0	(26)	44.2	(65)
		$X^2 = 11.64, P < .01$					
Financial Help	High	59.0	(118)	39.2	(49)	51.4	(167)
	Medium	35.5	(71)	47.2	(59)	40.0	(130)
	Low	5.5	(11)	13.6	(17)	8.6	(28)
		$X^2 = 14.36, P < .01$					
Family Size	Small	55.2	(111)	47.2	(60)	52.1	(171)
	Large	44.8	(90)	52.8	(67)	47.9	(157)
		$X^2 = 1.68, P = N.S.$					
Academic Performance	Above Average	71.5	(143)	41.6	(52)	60.0	(195)
	Below Average	28.5	(57)	58.4	(73)	40.0	(130)
		$X^2 = 27.42, P < .01$					
School Program:							
	College Prep.	79.8	(79)	53.8	(35)	69.5	(114)
	General	20.2	(20)	46.2	(30)	30.5	(50)
		$X^2 = 11.27, P < .01$					
Belief in the Relevance of School	High	70.6	(142)	57.9	(73)	65.7	(215)
	Low	29.4	(59)	42.1	(53)	34.3	(112)
		$X^2 = 5.01, P < .05$					
Belief in Educational Excellence	High	79.8	(158)	75.2	(94)	78.0	(252)
	Medium	16.7	(33)	21.6	(27)	18.6	(60)
	Low	3.5	(7)	3.2	(4)	3.4	(11)
		$X^2 = 1.24, P = N.S.$					
Self-esteem	High	35.3	(71)	23.2	(29)	30.7	(100)
	Medium	57.2	(115)	66.4	(83)	60.7	(198)
	Low	7.5	(15)	10.4	(13)	8.6	(28)
		$X^2 = 5.54, P = N.S.$					
Best Friends' Pressure	High	9.5	(19)	12.0	(15)	10.4	(34)
	Low	90.5	(182)	88.0	(110)	89.6	(292)
		$X^2 = 0.30, P = N.S.$					
Parental Pressure	High	28.4	(56)	28.6	(36)	28.5	(92)
	Medium	34.5	(68)	29.4	(37)	32.5	(105)
	Low	37.1	(73)	42.1	(53)	39.0	(126)
		$X^2 = 1.12, P = N.S.$					
Communication with Parents	High	72.9	(145)	54.8	(69)	65.8	(214)
	Medium	11.1	(22)	21.4	(27)	15.1	(49)
	Low	16.1	(32)	23.8	(30)	19.1	(62)
		$X^2 = 11.76, P < .01$					

TABLE 15. Continued

Predictor Variables		Orientation Congruity					
		Consistent Orientation		Inconsistent Orientation		(Total)	
		%	N	%	N	%	N
Teachers' Pressure	High	39.0	(78)	39.2	(49)	39.1	(127)
	Medium	35.0	(70)	32.8	(41)	34.2	(111)
	Low	26.0	(52)	28.0	(35)	26.8	(87)
		$X^2 = 0.22,$				$P = N.S.$	

factors do not significantly differentiate the two groups. Influences from significant others likewise do not have a significant differentiating effect. However, communication with parents is significantly and positively related to orientation congruity. Seventy-three per cent of the consistent females are high on communication with parents but only 55 per cent of the inconsistent females have frequent communication with their parents.

Turning to Table 16, which is a comparison between consistent and inconsistent males, one can see some basic differences in the causal pattern. Whereas for the females mainly structural and academic factors are significantly related to orientation congruity, for the males, structural, academic, and psychological variables are important factors affecting orientation congruity. In both cases, significant others' influences are unimportant as factors differentiating the consistent from the inconsistent groups. For the males, even communication with parents has no significant effect on orientation congruity. But all of the three psychological variables, namely, self-esteem, the belief in school relevance, and the belief in educational excellence, are significantly related to orientation congruity among the males.

TABLE 16. TWELVE VARIABLES BY EDUCATIONAL ORIENTATION CONGRUITY AMONG MALES

Predictor Variables		Orientation Congruity					
		Consistent Orientation		Inconsistent Orientation		(Total)	
		%	N	%	N	%	N
Socio-economic Status	Upper	19.6	(28)	9.8	(5)	17.0	(33)
	Middle	30.8	(44)	17.6	(9)	27.3	(53)
	Lower	49.7	(71)	72.5	(37)	55.7	(108)
				$\chi^2 = 8.02,$		$P < .05$	
Financial Help	High	47.1	(131)	27.3	(35)	40.9	(166)
	Medium	49.6	(138)	60.9	(78)	53.2	(216)
	Low	3.2	(9)	11.7	(15)	5.9	(24)
				$\chi^2 = 21.25,$		$P < .01$	
Family Size	Small	53.1	(153)	52.7	(69)	53.0	(222)
	Large	46.9	(135)	47.3	(62)	47.0	(197)
				$\chi^2 = 0.00,$		$P = N.S.$	
Academic Performance	Above Average	47.5	(134)	17.6	(22)	38.3	(156)
	Below Average	52.5	(148)	82.4	(103)	61.7	(251)
				$\chi^2 = 31.54,$		$P < .01$	
School Program:	College Prep.	70.8	(102)	48.0	(24)	64.9	(126)
	General	29.2	(42)	52.0	(26)	35.1	(68)
				$\chi^2 = 7.53,$		$P < .01$	
Belief in the Relevance of School	High	62.4	(179)	44.1	(56)	56.8	(235)
	Low	37.6	(108)	55.9	(71)	43.2	(179)
				$\chi^2 = 11.25,$		$P < .01$	
Belief in Educational Excellence	High	75.9	(214)	56.9	(70)	70.1	(284)
	Medium	20.2	(57)	34.1	(42)	24.4	(99)
	Low	3.9	(11)	8.9	(11)	5.4	(22)
				$\chi^2 = 15.21,$		$P < .01$	
Self-esteem	High	30.8	(88)	19.8	(26)	27.3	(114)
	Medium	64.7	(185)	71.8	(94)	66.9	(279)
	Low	4.5	(13)	8.4	(11)	5.8	(24)
				$\chi^2 = 6.91,$		$P < .05$	
Best Friends' Pressure	High	5.2	(15)	4.6	(6)	5.0	(21)
	Low	94.8	(273)	95.4	(124)	95.0	(397)
				$\chi^2 = 0.00,$		$P = N.S.$	
Parental Pressure	High	34.4	(97)	26.2	(33)	31.9	(130)
	Medium	42.2	(119)	47.6	(60)	43.9	(179)
	Low	23.4	(66)	26.2	(33)	24.3	(99)
				$\chi^2 = 2.70,$		$P = N.S.$	
Communication with Parents	High	57.4	(159)	48.8	(60)	54.8	(219)
	Medium	23.5	(65)	26.8	(33)	24.5	(98)
	Low	19.1	(53)	24.4	(30)	20.8	(83)
				$\chi^2 = 2.68,$		$P = N.S.$	

TABLE 16. Continued

Predictor Variables		Orientation Congruity					
		Consistent Orientation		Inconsistent Orientation		(Total)	
		%	N	%	N	%	N
Teachers' Pressure	High	29.9	(85)	35.7	(46)	31.7	(131)
	Medium	41.2	(117)	38.8	(50)	40.4	(167)
	Low	28.9	(82)	25.6	(33)	27.8	(115)
				$\chi^2 = 1.39,$		$P = N.S.$	

The final task in this section is to see if, within the consistent and the inconsistent groups, the males and the females are significantly different in terms of various characteristics. The first columns in Table 15 and Table 16 will be compared, and the second columns in the same two tables will be compared. Table 17 identifies the significance of these relationships. The consistent females have an advantage over the males in terms of social class background, financial help from parents, and academic performance. Among the consistent females, 59 per cent can expect considerable financial assistance from parents, but only 47 per cent of the male counterparts can expect the same. Some 47 per cent of the males have above-average academic performance, but over 70 per cent of the females have above-average performance. However, there is no significant difference between male and female subjects in terms of their enrollment in the school program, though the trend shows that the females are leading the males in enrolling in a college preparatory program. The implication of this analysis is that it requires much more for a female to maintain consistent orientations--with high aspiration and high expectation. Compared to the males, females need a more conducive family background and a much better scholastic performance to put them on an equal footing with the males. The females

TABLE 17. CHI-SQUARE TESTS FOR TWELVE VARIABLES BY EDUCATIONAL ORIENTATION CONGRUITY BY SEX*

Predictor Variables	Orientation Congruity	
	Consistent Females & Consistent Males	Inconsistent Females & Inconsistent Males
Socio-economic Status	$\chi^2 = 8.15$ P < .05	$\chi^2 = 5.48$ P = N.S.
Financial Help	$\chi^2 = 9.89$ P < .01	$\chi^2 = 5.06$ P = N.S.
Family Size	$\chi^2 = 0.13$ P = N.S.	$\chi^2 = 0.56$ P = N.S.
Academic Performance	$\chi^2 = 26.56$ P < .01	$\chi^2 = 16.14$ P < .01
School Program	$\chi^2 = 2.03$ P = N.S.	$\chi^2 = 0.19$ P = N.S.
Belief in the Relevance of School	$\chi^2 = 3.24$ P = N.S.	$\chi^2 = 4.31$ P < .05
Belief in Educational Excellence	$\chi^2 = 1.05$ P = N.S.	$\chi^2 = 10.02$ P < .01
Self-esteem	$\chi^2 = 3.57$ P = N.S.	$\chi^2 = 0.87$ P = N.S.
Best Friends' Pressure	$\chi^2 = 2.67$ P = N.S.	$\chi^2 = 3.67$ P = N.S.
Parental Pressure	$\chi^2 = 10.50$ P < .01	$\chi^2 = 10.24$ P < .01
Communication with Parents on Education	$\chi^2 = 14.70$ P < .01	$\chi^2 = 1.19$ P = N.S.
Teachers' Pressure	$\chi^2 = 4.28$ P = N.S.	$\chi^2 = 0.87$ P = N.S.

*The table presents the tests of significance for the relationship between male and female consistent and inconsistent students for each of the twelve predictor variables. The data are derived from Tables 15 and 16.

are also ahead of the males in terms of communicating with parents. Seventy-five per cent of the consistent females are high on communication, but only 57 per cent of the males are equally high. The effectiveness of the influence of parents, however, is unclear since

consistent males receive more parental pressure than females.

The second column in Table 17 identifies the significant differences between inconsistent males and females. Even though they are inconsistent in educational orientations, the females are still ahead of the males in several respects. Forty-two per cent of the inconsistent females are high in grade-point-average, but only 18 per cent of the males are above-average in performance. The females are also higher than the males in two attitudinal measures, the belief in school relevance and the belief in educational excellence. Parental pressure is more important for males than for females. Both males and females have roughly the same proportions who experience high pressure from parents, but 42 per cent of the females have low pressure, whereas only 26 per cent of the males have low pressure. This suggests that males, regardless of their orientation congruity, consistently receive more pressure from their parents to continue school. This also confirms the earlier observation that female subjects are at a greater disadvantage than male subjects. Many females who have above-average grades and favorable educational values apparently aspire to higher education but, more so than males, do not expect to go.

ANTICIPATORY COGNITIVE DISSONANCE

According to cognitive dissonance theory, a person experiencing cognitive dissonance tends to reduce the psychological tension engendered by the dissonance by transforming the inconsistent relationship into a consistent or an irrelevant one. This is possible by several means, one of which is to undervalue the non-chosen alternative. As has been pointed out, the discrepancy between aspiration and expectation

can be seen as a case of anticipatory cognitive dissonance. Students with university aspirations and university expectations will be considered as being consistent or having no dissonance. Those with university aspirations but who expect to go to professional schools or junior colleges are considered as having medium dissonance; those with university aspiration but only expecting to finish or drop out of high school will be considered as having high dissonance. Following the logic of cognitive dissonance theory, it is possible to argue that a person with anticipatory cognitive dissonance in educational orientations would tend to de-emphasize the values or importance of further education in order to maintain a psychological equilibrium. Further, the greater the dissonance the more intense will be the urge to de-emphasize the positive aspects of the not-to-be-chosen alternative. Several questions were asked to assess how students evaluated the importance of differing reasons for continuing education after high-school graduation. The questions were designed to assess a person's perception of the values of further education. For example, if a person thinks that an intellectual reason is important for his decision to continue education, it implies that further education is important for intellectual pursuits. Four questions reflecting professional, intellectual, social, and personal reasons were chosen for the tests.³ Students were asked to indicate how important they thought each reason was to them in setting

³People who go to school after high school do so for many reasons. Consider how important each of the following reasons is to you?

1. Acquiring the skills necessary to earn a living.
2. To broaden intellectual and cultural outlook.
3. To learn to get along with others.
4. To become a responsible person.

future educational goals. The responses were then cross-tabulated with the students' degree of anticipatory cognitive dissonance.

Of the four tests, only two reveal statistically significant relationships. Social and personal reasons are not found to be significantly related to anticipatory cognitive dissonance. The hypothesis is thus only partially confirmed. However, when the results are stratified for sex, some new perspectives emerge. Table 18 shows that for the females anticipatory cognitive dissonance fails to relate significantly with any of the reasons for continuing education. As for the males, three out of the four relationships are significant. The relationship between anticipatory cognitive dissonance and the personal reason ("to become a responsible person"), which is insignificant for the overall sample, is significant for the males. The relationship between dissonance and the intellectual reason ("to broaden intellectual and cultural outlook") is highly significant for the males but insignificant for the females. Similarly, the relationship between dissonance and the professional reason ("acquiring the skills necessary to earn a living") is significant for the males but not for the females. The relationship between dissonance and the social reason ("to learn to get along with others") is insignificant for both the males and the females. Apparently, females do not have to make psychological adjustments as a result of experiencing anticipatory cognitive dissonance. Whether their educational orientations are consistent or not have no significant effect on their perception of the importance of further education. In contrast, the males' educational orientations strongly affect how they evaluate the importance of further education. On the whole, those males who experience dissonance de-emphasize the various reasons for going on

TABLE 18. ACADEMIC VALUES BY SEX BY ANTICIPATORY COGNITIVE DISSONANCE

Reasons for Further Education			Educational Orientations						
			No Dissonance		Dissonance		(Total)		
			%	N	%	N	%	N	
Professional Reason	F	High Imp.*	85.0	(170)	77.8	(98)	82.2	(268)	
		Medium Imp.	13.5	(27)	18.3	(23)	15.3	(50)	
		Low Imp.	1.5	(3)	4.0	(5)	2.5	(8)	
					$\chi^2 = 3.55,$	$P = N.S.$			
	M	High Imp.	86.2	(244)	74.2	(95)	82.5	(339)	
		Medium Imp.	10.6	(30)	20.3	(26)	13.6	(56)	
		Low Imp.	3.2	(9)	5.5	(7)	3.9	(16)	
					$\chi^2 = 8.83,$	$P > .05$			
	Intellectual Reason	F	High Imp.	65.5	(129)	57.7	(71)	62.5	(200)
			Medium Imp.	27.4	(54)	36.6	(45)	30.9	(99)
Low Imp.			7.1	(14)	5.7	(7)	6.6	(21)	
				$\chi^2 = 3.02,$	$P = N.S.$				
M		High Imp.	51.1	(143)	30.4	(38)	44.7	(181)	
		Medium Imp.	37.1	(104)	44.8	(56)	39.5	(160)	
		Low Imp.	11.8	(33)	24.8	(31)	15.8	(64)	
				$\chi^2 = 18.81,$	$P > .01$				
Social Reason		F	High Imp.	53.5	(106)	49.2	(62)	51.9	(168)
			Medium Imp.	31.8	(63)	34.1	(43)	32.7	(106)
	Low Imp.		14.6	(29)	16.7	(21)	15.4	(50)	
					$\chi^2 = 0.61,$	$P = N.S.$			
	M	High Imp.	44.2	(125)	39.1	(50)	42.6	(175)	
		Medium Imp.	37.1	(105)	35.9	(46)	36.7	(151)	
		Low Imp.	18.7	(53)	25.0	(32)	20.7	(85)	
					$\chi^2 = 2.25,$	$P = N.S.$			
	Personal Reason	F	High Imp.	76.3	(151)	79.4	(100)	77.5	(251)
			Medium Imp.	19.2	(38)	18.3	(23)	18.8	(61)
Low Imp.			4.5	(9)	2.4	(3)	3.7	(12)	
				$\chi^2 = 1.11,$	$P = N.S.$				
M		High Imp.	72.0	(203)	57.8	(74)	67.6	(277)	
		Medium Imp.	17.7	(50)	31.3	(40)	22.0	(90)	
		Low Imp.	10.3	(29)	10.9	(14)	10.5	(43)	
				$\chi^2 = 9.98,$	$P > .01$				

*High Importance, Medium Importance, Low Importance.

to school and, in other words, de-emphasize the importance of further education.

The hypothesis is thus confirmed for the males but rejected for the females. One may speculate as to why this is the case. One possible reason is that females are under less social pressure to continue education after high-school graduation, thus the psychological pressure they experience as a result of having inconsistent orientations is not strong and compelling enough to require psychological adjustment. Males, on the other hand, are expected to get ahead, to be successful, and to be ambitious. The psychological pressure they experience as a result of having anticipatory cognitive dissonance may be stronger, more relevant, and more ego-involved than the pressure experienced by females who are in the same situation.⁴ Males, therefore, may be under greater pressure to maintain some kind of psychological equilibrium. The lack of relationship between dissonance and social reason may be due to the fact that social reason is not an important consideration for planning further education. Further research in this area is needed.⁵

⁴A zero-order correlation of $-.104$ was found between sex and father's pressure toward additional schooling (significant at .001 level) indicating that more male students receive strong pressure from their fathers. Similarly, a zero-order correlation of $-.084$ was found between sex and mother's pressure (significant at .001 level) indicating that more male students receive strong pressure from their mothers.

⁵When social class was held constant, no significant relationship was discovered between orientation congruity and the various reasons for furthering education. When both social class and sex were controlled, again no significant relationship was found between orientation congruity and the various reasons.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

In this final section, a resumé of the findings will be presented. One of the stated objectives of this study is to examine empirically the differences between educational aspiration and educational expectation in terms of their respective relationships with various independent variables. The data, however, do not reveal substantial differences between the two. Cross-tabulation analyses show that of the eleven chosen independent variables eight are significantly and positively related to aspiration. On the other hand, all but one of the eleven independent variables are significantly related to expectation. The fact that financial help and family size are not significantly related to aspiration but are significantly related to expectation somewhat supports the initial argument that, unlike expectation, aspiration represents the idealistic aspect and is therefore more immune to external structural influences. Stepwise regression analyses have likewise shown that there is very little difference between aspiration and expectation in terms of the proportions of variations explained by the eleven predictor variables. Further, the proportions of explained variance in both cases are not as high as expected. The predictors explain about 21 per cent of the variance in aspiration and about 26 per cent of the variance in expectation. In both cases, about nine-tenths of the explained variance is accounted for by the same four variables, namely, academic performance, socio-economic status, the belief in school relevance, and parental pressure toward additional schooling. On the whole, the effort to discover the differences between the patterns of causal antecedents of aspiration and expectation has not been very successful.

There can be at least two reasons for this. First, there are no major differences between aspiration and expectation or, in other words, they are simply different measures of the same thing. This is contrary to the basic assumptions of this and other studies. The second possibility is that this study has failed to identify the appropriate variables to carry out the tests or that there are measurement errors in the data.

The class-based nature of aspiration and expectation is one of the most important characteristics of educational orientations. Partial correlation tests have shown that the relationships between social class and both aspiration and expectation are not spurious. After controlling for four variables, the relationships are still significant. The hypotheses that the relationships between social class and educational aspirations and expectations are positive when four intervening variables are controlled have been confirmed. Another aspect of this relationship is that both aspiration and expectation are class-based--the higher the socio-economic status, the greater the percentage of people with university aspiration and expectation. This study lends support to the contention that both educational aspiration and expectation vary by social class. In other words, it supports the conclusions reached by Rehberg (1967), Caro and Pihlblad (1965), and Wendling and Elliott (1968). Furthermore, it is found that the aspiration-expectation discrepancy is also class-based, with lower-class subjects having greater discrepancies than middle-class subjects. The hypothesis that the aspiration-expectation discrepancy is inversely related to socio-economic status is supported by the evidence.

One of the more disappointing parts of the study is the section that deals with the prediction of a student's educational expectation

when his aspiration is known. The proportions of explained variance in expectations of both high-aspiring and low-aspiring students are fairly small. If a person has expressed high aspirations, only about 16 per cent of the variance in his expectation can be predicted by the eleven chosen variables. As for a low-aspiring student, the proportion of explained variance in his expectation is even smaller. This is attributed to the fact that the two dimensions of educational orientation are highly correlated. Further research in this area is deemed necessary in view of the fact that expectation is known to be highly correlated with ultimate attainment.

Orientation inconsistency has received much attention in this study. The fundamental question is: Why do some students have high aspirations but low expectations? The proportion of variance in orientation congruity explained by various predictive factors is not as large as expected.⁶ Cross-tabulation analysis shows that, with the exception of the influences from significant others (including parents, teachers, and best friends), most of the predictor variables are significantly related to orientation congruity. However, the factors associated with inconsistency differ for different social groups. For middle-class adolescents, the central explanatory factors in inconsistent orientation are academic factors. But for lower-class students, the causes are

⁶It should be mentioned that the proportion of variance in orientation congruity explained by various predictor variables is the same as the proportion of variance in educational expectations of high-aspiring students explained by various predictors (see Table 10, p. 58). In other words, 15.6 per cent of the variance in orientation congruity is explained by eleven predictors (school program is the only variable absent from this list of predictors).

multi-dimensional, ranging from poor academic performance to inadequate communication with parents on educational matters to low self-esteem. Similarly, the causes of inconsistency differ for males and females. It has been found that, on the whole, the female consistent group differs from the female inconsistent group in structural and academic respects. For the males, in contrast, structural, academic, and psychological factors are important in differentiating the consistent from the inconsistent orientation groups.

A related task is to see if, within the consistent orientation group and the inconsistent orientation group, students with different social class backgrounds and students of different sexes have similar characteristics. It was found that the inconsistent middle-class students did not significantly differ from the inconsistent lower-class students. This, however, is not the case with respect to subjects with consistent orientations. Within the consistent orientation group, financial help, academic performance, and the school program are more important among middle-class students than lower-class students. It appears that the consistent lower-class students must have some other qualities to compensate for their handicaps. Self-esteem appears to be one of these qualities. There are significantly more consistent lower-class students than consistent middle-class students with high self-esteem. Females are consistently ahead of males in various ways regardless of whether their orientations are consistent or not. Social class background, financial help, academic performance, and communication with parents are more important among consistent females than males. Similarly, academic performance and educational values are more important for inconsistent females than males, though the latter

experience stronger parental pressure. This has been interpreted as an indication of sexual inequality in educational opportunities since it is much easier for males than for females to maintain consistent orientations.

The author regards the introduction of the idea of anticipatory cognitive dissonance as the most important contribution of this study. Though the data fail to adequately test the theory, the findings of the tests provide initial support for the anticipatory cognitive dissonance hypothesis. It has been found that those males with inconsistent orientations (i.e., with university aspiration but non-university expectation), relative to those with consistent orientations, are more inclined to undervalue the importance of further education. They assign less importance to the professional, intellectual, and personal reasons for additional schooling. The social reason is the only variable on which the consistent males do not significantly differ from the inconsistent males. The consistent females, in contrast, do not significantly differ from the inconsistent females for any of the four reasons. In other words, within the limits of our data, anticipatory cognitive dissonance is not applicable to females. This has been interpreted as due to the fact that females, relative to males, are under less social pressure to pursue further education and hence are not subject to psychological pressures compelling enough to require psychological adjustment. The hypothesis that those who experience anticipatory cognitive dissonance will tend to de-emphasize the value of further education is confirmed for the males but rejected for the females.

One major weakness in this study of anticipatory cognitive dissonance is the problem of causal direction. The argument that having

consistent or inconsistent orientations leads to the differential evaluation of the importance of further education is a theoretical assumption. Theoretically speaking, a person who does not think highly of further education in the first place will not have high aspirations and, hence, will not have dissonance. Therefore, the causal sequence should be from orientation congruity to one's evaluation of additional schooling. Unfortunately, the nature of the data does not allow verification of this point. Longitudinal data or data from experimental studies are necessary to clarify the problem of causal direction. This study should therefore be looked upon as exploratory in nature. Further studies should be specifically designed to tackle the various theoretical issues involved.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

The first part of this final chapter is a recapitulation of theoretical issues and empirical findings. Contributions and shortcomings of this study will be discussed in the second part. Suggestions for future research will be made in the final section of this chapter.

RECAPITULATION

The development of research on educational orientations can, in large part, be seen as a series of attempts to explain the relationship between social class and educational aspiration. In an effort to account for this relationship, two seemingly conflicting theoretical perspectives have emerged. One emphasizes the lower classes' perception of access limitations, the other stresses the limited motivation and inadequate value system of the lower class. The most significant attempt to reconcile these contrasting views has been to differentiate idealistic aspiration from realistic expectation and to compare the two. To date, there remain several major gaps in this area of research. These gaps include: a) the nature of mobility orientation (idealistic aspiration and realistic expectation) has not been fully examined; b) characteristics associated with the discrepancy between aspiration and expectation have seldom been investigated; and c) the effects of this discrepancy on both behaviors and attitudes have on the whole been overlooked. The objectives of this study are to further explore

these questions.

The major findings are summarized below. First, neither cross-tabulation analysis nor stepwise regression analysis revealed any substantial difference between the patterns of influence on educational aspiration and educational expectation. Second, by means of partial correlation tests, it was found that the relationships between social class and both aspiration and expectation were not spurious. Both aspiration and expectation were found to be positively and significantly related to social class background when four intervening variables were controlled. Third, the magnitude of the aspiration-expectation discrepancy was found to be inversely related to social class background. Fourth, the proportions of explained variance in the educational expectations of high- and low-aspiring students by the eleven predictor variables were smaller than expected. Fifth, different factors were found to be responsible for the orientation incongruity of various social groups. The middle-class consistent and inconsistent groups differed mainly in academic factors. But the causes of lower-class inconsistency were multi-dimensional. Regardless of whether their orientations were congruous or not, the females were found to have an advantage over the males in social, academic, and psychological aspects. Sixth, tests on anticipatory cognitive dissonance showed that males with inconsistent orientations were more inclined to downgrade the importance of further education. There was, however, no difference between consistent and inconsistent females in terms of their perceptions of the importance of further education.

CONTRIBUTIONS AND SHORTCOMINGS

It is believed that this study contributes to mobility orientation research in three main respects. First, the introduction of the idea of anticipatory cognitive dissonance is an important contribution to social-psychological theory. It represents a logical extension of cognitive dissonance theory. The study suggests that cognitive dissonance not only takes place after an action has been performed but also when a certain course of action is anticipated. It also underlines the significance of understanding mobility orientation in terms of two dimensions--the idealistic dimension and the realistic dimension. This study, together with the one by Han (1968), should encourage future researchers to pay more attention to the aspiration-expectation discrepancy and its relationship to behaviors and attitudes. Second, this is one of the very few studies that attempts to identify the structural and psychological factors related to the aspiration-expectation discrepancy. Some interpretations based on the findings, such as the multi-dimensional causes of orientation inconsistency of the lower class versus the uni-dimensional causes of inconsistency of the middle class, and the sexual inequality in educational opportunities, should be looked into by future studies. One empirical contribution of this study is that it has shown it can be rather misleading to explore the factors associated with the aspiration-expectation discrepancy unless one looks at differing socio-cultural groups; e.g., middle-class students have quite different characteristics from lower-class students and males appear to have differing educational orientation characteristics from females. Third, this study has been able to identify independent variables which are

important in understanding the nature of educational aspiration and educational expectation. The tests consistently show that certain variables are more important than others. Academic performance is the most important of all variables. It is repeatedly shown to be positively and significantly related to both aspiration and expectation; it also predicts the greatest proportion of variance in these two dimensions of educational orientation. The other more important variables are socio-economic status, parental pressure toward additional education, and educational values such as the belief in the relevance of school. Certain variables, such as financial help, and family size, are more relevant for educational expectation than for aspiration. And there are a few variables, such as best friends' pressure toward additional schooling, teachers' pressure, and communication with parents on educational matters, which have very little effect on either aspiration or expectation. Peer group influence appears unrelated to educational orientation. These findings should be carefully studied when selecting variables in future studies.

Nonetheless, as with other research, there are several limitations worthy of note. First, the data are not longitudinal in nature. Though seventh-, ninth-, and twelfth-grade students are included in the sample, this is not an adequate substitute for the time-series effect. As has been pointed out, the anticipatory cognitive dissonance hypothesis requires longitudinal or experimental data to fully test the causal sequence. Second, there is social class data on only about one-third of the subjects. This is one of the major flaws of the data. Though those subjects with socio-economic status information do not appear to differ significantly from those without SES information, the sample

size is greatly reduced whenever socio-economic status is included in a statistical test. It is possible that some of the tests which involve social class and which fail to produce statistically significant relationships (e.g., anticipatory cognitive dissonance tests controlling for SES) are due to small sample size. Third, some variables which have been shown by previous studies to be powerful determinants of educational orientations are simply absent from our data. It is suggested that the small proportions of explained variance in aspiration, expectation, and orientation congruity may be due to the fact that certain important variables are unavailable. These variables include I.Q., achievement motivation, achievement-oriented values, community context, school atmosphere, and parental factors (such as job satisfaction, social mobility of parents, etc.). Fourth, the data are also inadequate in that too many of the variables are based on self-report information. These include academic performance, parental pressure, teachers' pressure, best friends' pressure, communication with parents, and financial help from parents. The usefulness of self-report data is limited in that self-report variables might show a higher inter-correlation than would be the case if more objective measurement techniques were used. For example, a university-aspiring student would have a greater tendency to interpret his parents' actions as some kind of pressure toward further schooling. The drawback of the high inter-correlation among self-report variables is that the independent contribution of each of the variables in the dependent variable would be minimized.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The study of aspiration, expectation, and the educational orientation discrepancy is an important issue in mobility orientation research. However, the usefulness of differentiating aspiration from expectation depends very much on the ability to empirically demonstrate the different characteristics of these two dimensions of mobility orientation. As has been pointed out, this study has not been very successful in this endeavor. The causes of orientation inconsistency have been examined quite extensively in this study. However, because of insufficient cases and related factors, the inconsistency between low aspiration and high expectation has not been explored. Students of mobility orientation should find this a challenging and interesting task. This, to the author's knowledge, has never been investigated. For similar reasons, only one aspect of the anticipatory cognitive dissonance hypothesis has been tested. The study of the effects of having low aspiration and high expectation is another research possibility. The author has argued that, following the logic of cognitive dissonance theory, those who have low educational aspiration but high expectation would be inclined to over-emphasize the importance of further education. Future studies should further test this hypothesis. The anticipatory cognitive dissonance tests did not produce any significant result when social class was controlled. This, as has been suggested, may be due to the fact that the N's were too small. Future research should re-examine this problem. Finally, though many studies have demonstrated the importance of peer group influence on mobility orientations, findings of this study do not support these conclusions. This will

revive the debate on the salience of peer group sub-culture and the influence of significant others.

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FORM A - STUDENT

APPENDIX - STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

IBM NUMBER

OREGON STUDENT SURVEY

UNIVERSITY OF OREGON

(Full Name of Your School)

Your Sex: () Male

() Female

(Your Grade)Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to learn more about the life of young people. We are interested in finding out something about your parents, your best friends, your teachers, and your school. We believe that you will enjoy answering the questions.

THIS IS NOT A TEST. There are no right or wrong answers. Please answer each question frankly, honestly, and to the best of your ability. Your parents, best friends, or teachers will never see your questionnaire or your responses. Your answers will be strictly confidential. Our interest is in how students in general answer the questions rather than in how any particular student answers them.

INSTRUCTIONS

- A. A number of items use the terms "MOTHER" and "FATHER." If you are not currently living with your natural mother or father, the terms should be taken to mean your "STEPMOTHER, STEP-FATHER, MALE GUARDIAN, or FEMALE GUARDIAN, or FOSTER MOTHER or FATHER" - whoever you are living with. The term "PARENTS" refers to your current parents or "PARENT" if you were only living with one of your parents during the past year. NOTE: If you have not lived with both of your parents during the past year (since October, 1967) but did live with both of your parents before this time, then answer all questions just as if your parents were still living together. If, however, you have lived with only one of your parents for more than a year then check (✓) the box that applies in each question and go on to the next question.
- B. Read each item carefully. Answer it to the best of your knowledge. Please check (✓) or circle only one answer. However, do not spend too much time on any one question. If there is not an appropriate answer available then write in your answer or write in "I don't know."
- C. Be sure to follow the directions given for answering each question.
- D. Do not skip any questions unless you are instructed to do so.
- E. If you wish to make comments, please feel free to do so, and write them in the margin by the questions or at the end of the questionnaire.
- F. The small numbers that frequently appear in the questionnaire are for IBM processing equipment. These numbers aid in tabulating your responses at the research office.
- H. NOTE: YOU HAVE ALSO RECEIVED A TAKE-HOME PACKET. PLEASE TAKE HOME WITH YOU AND SEE THAT IT IS HANDED EITHER TO YOUR MOTHER OR FATHER AS SOON AS POSSIBLE. PLEASE URGE YOUR PARENTS TO RETURN THIS PACKET WITH THEIR COMPLETED QUESTIONNAIRES AS SOON AS POSSIBLE. PLEASE DO NOT DISCUSS YOUR QUESTIONNAIRE WITH YOUR PARENTS UNTIL THEY HAVE FILLED OUT THEIRS!

- THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION -

CARD ONE

12. HOW OLD ARE YOU TODAY?

- | | |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| 1. <input type="checkbox"/> 10-11 years | 6. <input type="checkbox"/> 16 years |
| 2. <input type="checkbox"/> 12 years | 7. <input type="checkbox"/> 17 years |
| 3. <input type="checkbox"/> 13 years | 8. <input type="checkbox"/> 18 years |
| 4. <input type="checkbox"/> 14 years | 9. <input type="checkbox"/> 19+ years |
| 5. <input type="checkbox"/> 15 years | |

13. WHAT IS YOUR RACIAL BACKGROUND?

1. ☐ White
2. ☐ Negro
3. ☐ Oriental
4. ☐ American Indian
5. ☐ Other (Specify: _____)

14. WHAT IS YOUR SEX?

1. ☐ Male
2. ☐ Female

15. WHAT GRADE ARE YOU IN?

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| 1. <input type="checkbox"/> 7th grade | 4. <input type="checkbox"/> 10th grade |
| 2. <input type="checkbox"/> 8th grade | 5. <input type="checkbox"/> 11th grade |
| 3. <input type="checkbox"/> 9th grade | 6. <input type="checkbox"/> 12th grade |

16. WHAT KIND OF PROGRAM ARE YOU TAKING IN SCHOOL? NOTE: If you are not in one of these programs now, which one will you be in?

1. ☐ College Prep - (a course of study that prepares you for college)
2. ☐ General - (a course of study that does not prepare you for college)
9. ☐ I don't know

17. HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS ONLY! Which areas of study are you emphasizing. If more than one, check the area in which you take the most courses.

1. ☐ Business education
2. ☐ English
3. ☐ Fine Arts
4. ☐ Foreign language
5. ☐ Humanities
6. ☐ Industrial Arts
7. ☐ Mathematics
8. ☐ Physical Education
9. ☐ Science

18. ARE YOUR MOTHER AND FATHER NOW LIVING?

1. ☐ Both are living
2. ☐ Only my father is living
3. ☐ Only my mother is living
4. ☐ Neither parent is living

19. ARE YOUR PARENTS DIVORCED OR SEPARATED?

1. ☐ No, they are not divorced or separated
2. ☐ Yes, they are divorced
3. ☐ Yes, they are separated

20. WITH WHOM DO YOU LIVE?

1. ☐ With both my mother and father
2. ☐ With only my mother
3. ☐ With only my father
4. ☐ With my mother and stepfather
5. ☐ With my father and stepmother
6. ☐ With foster parents
7. ☐ Other (Specify: _____)

21- WRITE THE FIRST NAMES OF EACH ONE OF YOUR BROTHERS AND SISTERS. Indicate how

old they are and whether they are a brother (put B) or sister (put S). If you have no brothers or sisters place a checkmark in the category below: "No brothers," and "No sisters."

Example:

JohnSexBAge12

_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

☐ No brothers☐ No sisters

27. HOW OFTEN DO YOU GO TO THE MOVIES?

1. ☐ never - SKIP TO QUESTION 29
2. ☐ several times a year
3. ☐ about once a month
4. ☐ two or three times a month
5. ☐ about once a week
6. ☐ more than once a week

GO ON TO
QUESTION 28

28. WHEN YOU GO TO THE MOVIES, WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING DO YOU MOST OFTEN GO WITH?

1. ☐ your parents
2. ☐ your best friends
3. ☐ your brothers or sisters

29. ABOUT HOW MUCH TIME DO YOU USUALLY SPEND WATCHING TV ON WEEKDAYS?

1. () none, or almost none
2. () about 1/2 hour a day
3. () about 1 hour a day
4. () about 1 1/2 hours a day
5. () about 2 hours a day
6. () 3 or more hours a day

The following four items are about your plans for a job and for an education. There are two types of questions. One type is called "REALLY LIKE TO" and the other type is called "ACTUALLY EXPECT TO." There is a very important difference between these questions.

A "REALLY LIKE TO" question on jobs asks you to choose what you most want to do. For example, you may really want to be an engineer or a lawyer. A "ACTUALLY EXPECT TO" question on jobs asks what you think you will actually do. For example, because you know that you cannot afford a college education you actually expect to be a mechanic. Please keep this difference in mind when you answer the following questions.

30. SUPPOSING YOU HAD THE NECESSARY ABILITIES, GRADES, MONEY, ETC., HOW FAR WOULD YOU REALLY LIKE TO GO IN SCHOOL?

1. () Until I can drop out of high school
2. () Graduate from high school
3. () Trade or technical school, for example, beauty or auto mechanic school
4. () Business school
5. () Nursing school
6. () Junior college or 2 years of college
7. () Graduate from 4 years of college
8. () Graduate school (Masters, Ph.D)
9. () I don't know

31. CONSIDERING YOUR ABILITIES, GRADES, FINANCIAL RESOURCES, ETC., HOW FAR DO YOU ACTUALLY EXPECT TO GO IN SCHOOL?

1. () Until I can drop out of high school
2. () Graduate from high school
3. () Trade or technical school, for example beauty or auto mechanic school
4. () Business school
5. () Nursing school
6. () Junior college or 2 years of college
7. () Graduate from 4 years of college
8. () Graduate school (Masters, Ph.D)
9. () I don't know

32. SUPPOSING YOU COULD HAVE THE NECESSARY ABILITIES, EDUCATION, GRADES, MONEY, ETC., WHAT KIND OF WORK WOULD YOU REALLY LIKE TO DO AFTER YOU FINISH YOUR EDUCATION?

(Specific name or title of job you would really like to have. If you really don't know, put DK on the above line.)

33. CONSIDERING YOUR ABILITIES, GRADES, FINANCIAL RESOURCES, CHANCES FOR TECHNICAL SCHOOL, COLLEGE, ETC., WHAT KIND OF WORK DO YOU ACTUALLY EXPECT TO DO AFTER YOU FINISH YOUR EDUCATION?

(Specific name or title of job you actually expect to get. If you really don't know, put DK on the above line.)

34. WHAT ARE YOUR PLANS REGARDING MARRIAGE?

1. () I am married now
2. () I plan to get married soon after I get out of high school
3. () I plan to get married while in the service or while I am in college
4. () I plan to finish all my schooling and/or service obligations before I marry
5. () I do not plan to marry at all
6. () I am undecided

Young people usually have some specific ideas about the school they attend. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true. Please circle your answer.

	1.	2.	3.	4.
35. School is dull and boring	SA	A	D	SD
36. School is a waste of time for the type of work I will be doing	SA	A	D	SD
37. My teachers judge a student by who he runs around with	SA	A	D	SD
38. The teachers are fair to everybody. Everybody has an equal opportunity to get good grades. The teachers do not have favorites	SA	A	D	SD
39. I like school very much	SA	A	D	SD

The following statements are about your relationships with your teachers. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true of most of your teachers. Please circle your answer.

- | | 1. | 2. | 3. | 4. |
|---|----|----|----|----|
| 40. My teachers understand my problems | SA | A | D | SD |
| 41. My teachers are willing to talk with me when I have a question | SA | A | D | SD |
| 42. My teachers are interested in the things I like to do | SA | A | D | SD |
| 43. My teachers know their subjects well | SA | A | D | SD |
| 44. My teachers really help me understand the lessons | SA | A | D | SD |
| 45. I find it difficult to talk with my teachers about things that trouble me | SA | A | D | SD |
| 46. My teachers always act as if they like me | SA | A | D | SD |
| 47. My teachers like their jobs | SA | A | D | SD |
| 48. My teachers do the best they can in their jobs | SA | A | D | SD |
| 49. I like my teachers very much | SA | A | D | SD |

50. PLEASE RATE YOUR TEACHERS ON THEIR ABILITY AND WILLINGNESS TO HELP YOU MAKE THE RIGHT DECISION ABOUT COLLEGE OR A JOB.

1. () My teachers are able and willing to help me decide
2. () My teachers are able to help me but they are not willing
3. () My teachers are willing to help me, but they are not able
4. () My teachers are neither able nor willing to help me decide

51. HOW OFTEN DO YOUR TEACHERS URGE YOU TO IMPROVE YOUR GRADES?

- | | |
|------------------|-------------------|
| 1. () Never | 3. () Often |
| 2. () Sometimes | 4. () Constantly |

52. HOW OFTEN DO YOUR TEACHERS URGE YOU TO GET MORE EDUCATION AFTER HIGH SCHOOL?

- | | |
|------------------|-------------------|
| 1. () Never | 3. () Often |
| 2. () Sometimes | 4. () Constantly |

The following statements are about your relationships with your father. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true. Please circle your answer. NOTE: IF YOU HAVE NOT BEEN LIVING WITH YOUR FATHER DURING THE PAST YEAR PLEASE SKIP TO QUESTION 69 ON THE NEXT PAGE. REMEMBER: The term "father" refers to whoever you are living with - stepfather, male guardian, or foster father.

- | | 1. | 2. | 3. | 4. |
|---|----|----|----|----|
| 53. My father understands my problems | SA | A | D | SD |
| 54. My father is willing to talk with me when I have a problem | SA | A | D | SD |
| 55. My father is interested in the things I like to do | SA | A | D | SD |
| 56. My father knows the subjects I study | SA | A | D | SD |
| 57. My father really helps me understand the lessons | SA | A | D | SD |
| 58. I find it difficult to talk with my father about things that trouble me | SA | A | D | SD |
| 59. My father always acts as if he likes me | SA | A | D | SD |
| 60. My father likes his job | SA | A | D | SD |
| 61. My father does the best he can on his job | SA | A | D | SD |
| 62. My father tries his best to be a good father | SA | A | D | SD |
| 63. I like my father very much | SA | A | D | SD |
64. HOW OFTEN DOES YOUR FATHER URGE YOU TO IMPROVE YOUR GRADES?

- | | |
|------------------|-------------------|
| 1. () Never | 3. () Often |
| 2. () Sometimes | 4. () Constantly |

14. HOW FAR IN SCHOOL HAS YOUR MOTHER SAID SHE WOULD REALLY LIKE TO SEE YOU GO?

1. () Until I can drop out of high school
2. () Graduate from high school
3. () Trade or technical school, for example, beauty or auto mechanics school
4. () Business school
5. () Nursing school
6. () Junior college or 2 years of college
7. () Graduate from 4 years of college
8. () Graduate school (Masters or Ph.D)
9. () She hasn't said

15. HOW FAR IN SCHOOL HAS YOUR MOTHER SAID SHE ACTUALLY EXPECTS YOU TO GO?

1. () Until I can drop out of high school
2. () Graduate from high school
3. () Trade or technical school, for example, beauty or auto mechanics school
4. () Business school
5. () Nursing school
6. () Junior college or 2 years of college
7. () Graduate from 4 years of college
8. () Graduate school (Masters or Ph.D)
9. () She hasn't said

16. PLEASE RATE YOUR MOTHER ON HER ABILITY AND WILLINGNESS TO HELP YOU MAKE THE RIGHT DECISIONS ABOUT COLLEGE OR A JOB.

1. () My mother is able and willing to help me decide
2. () My mother is able to help me but she is not willing
3. () My mother is willing to help me, but she is not able
4. () My mother is neither able nor willing to help me decide

17. WILL YOUR PARENTS HELP YOU REACH YOUR SCHOOL AND WORK GOALS BY HELPING YOU PAY YOUR WAY?

1. () No, they can't afford to help me at all
2. () Yes, they will help me some
3. () Yes, they will help me quite a bit

The following two statements are about your relationships with your best friends. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true. Please circle your answer.

- go to top of the page -

1. 2. 3. 4.

18. My best friends like school SA A D SD

19. My best friends do the best they can in their school work SA A D SD

20. HOW OFTEN DO YOUR BEST FRIENDS URGE YOU TO IMPROVE YOUR GRADES?

1. () Never
2. () Sometimes
3. () Often
4. () Constantly

21. HOW OFTEN DO YOUR BEST FRIENDS URGE YOU TO GET MORE EDUCATION AFTER HIGH SCHOOL?

1. () Never
2. () Sometimes
3. () Often
4. () Constantly

22. PLEASE RATE YOUR BEST FRIENDS ON THEIR ABILITY AND WILLINGNESS TO HELP YOU MAKE THE RIGHT DECISIONS ABOUT COLLEGE OR A JOB.

1. () My best friends are able and willing to help me decide
2. () My best friends are able to help me but they are not willing
3. () My best friends are willing to help me, but they are not able
4. () My best friends are neither able nor willing to help me decide

The following statements are about your relationships with your parents and best friends. As you read each description, consider whether your parents (P) or best friends (BF) fits the description the best. Please circle your answer. Note: If you feel that your parents and best friends both fit the description equally well (the same) then you may circle "same" (Sa).

WHO (Parents or Best Friends): 1. 2. 3.

23. best understands your problems P BF Sa

24. is most willing to talk with you when you have a problem P BF Sa

25. is most interested in the things you like to do P BF Sa

26. best knows your school subjects P BF Sa

27. best helps you understand the school lessons P BF Sa

- go to top of the next page -

- | | | | | |
|--|----|----|----|--|
| | 1. | 2. | 3. | |
|--|----|----|----|--|
28. is most difficult to talk with about things that trouble you P BF Sa
29. most often acts as if they like you P BF Sa
30. do you like the best P BF Sa
31. tries the hardest to help you when you have a problem P BF Sa
32. is it the easiest to talk to P BF Sa
33. would you most like to get "closer to" P BF Sa
34. has the most influence on you P BF Sa
35. has the most control over you P BF Sa
36. WHEN YOU ARE TRYING TO MAKE UP YOUR MIND ABOUT SOMETHING IMPORTANT, WHOSE IDEAS DO YOU PAY THE MOST ATTENTION TO?
1. () Best Friends
2. () Parents
3. () Both about the same
4. () Other (Specify: _____)
37. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING THREE THINGS WOULD MAKE YOU THE MOST UNHAPPY?
1. () Best Friends did not like what I did
2. () Parents did not like what I did
3. () Favorite teacher did not like what I did
38. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING THINGS WOULD BE THE HARDEST FOR YOU TO TAKE?
1. () Best Friends' disapproval
2. () Parents' disapproval
3. () Teachers' disapproval
39. LET'S SAY THAT YOU HAVE ALWAYS WANTED TO BELONG TO A PARTICULAR CLUB THAT YOUR BEST FRIENDS ARE MEMBERS OF, AND FINALLY YOU WERE ASKED TO JOIN. BUT, THEN YOU FOUND OUT THAT YOUR PARENTS DON'T APPROVE OF THE GROUP. Do you think you would. . . .
1. () definitely join anyway
2. () probably join
3. () probably not join
4. () definitely not join
40. SOME YOUNG PEOPLE BELIEVE THAT THEIR PARENTS ARE OLD FASHIONED OR OUT OF "TOUCH" WITH YOUTH. Do you feel this way about your parents?
1. () No, never
2. () Yes, sometimes
3. () Yes, often
4. () Yes, always
41. WHEN YOUR FAMILY EATS OUT, GOES ON A PICNIC, GOES TO A MOVIE, GOES TO A CONCERT, OR GOES ANYWHERE TOGETHER, WHAT ARE YOUR FEELINGS ABOUT GOING ALONG?
1. () I enjoy going with my family very much
2. () I enjoy going with my family somewhat
3. () I do not enjoy going with my family--I would just as soon do something else
4. () I would prefer not to go with my family at all
42. IF YOUR FAMILY WAS PLANNING TO EAT OUT, GO ON A PICNIC, GO TO A CONCERT, OR GO ANYWHERE TOGETHER, AND YOU HAD THE OPPORTUNITY TO GO SOMEWHERE WITH YOUR BEST FRIENDS WHO WOULD YOU GO WITH?
1. () Definitely go with family
2. () Probably go with family
3. () Probably go with best friends
4. () Definitely go with best friends
- FOR EACH OF THE FOLLOWING DESCRIPTIONS CIRCLE THE LETTER OF THE PERSON THAT BEST FITS THE DESCRIPTION. F = Father, M = Mother, B = best Friend, and T = favorite Teacher.
- | | | | | |
|--|----|----|----|----|
| | 1. | 2. | 3. | 4. |
|--|----|----|----|----|
43. the person whose company I most enjoy F M B T
44. the person whom I would most like to be like F M B T
45. the person whose ideas about fun are most like mine F M B T
46. the person whose ideas about right and wrong are most like mine F M B T
47. the person whose ideas about the importance of school are most like mine F M B T
48. the person whose interests are most like mine F M B T

People usually have some specific ideas about themselves. Some of these are listed below. As you read them, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true of your feelings about yourself. Please circle your answer.

- | | <u>1.</u> | <u>2.</u> | <u>3.</u> | <u>4.</u> |
|---|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| 49. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others | SA | A | D | SD |
| 50. I feel that I have a number of good qualities | SA | A | D | SD |
| 51. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure | SA | A | D | SD |
| 52. I am able to do things as well as most people | SA | A | D | SD |
| 53. I feel I do not have much to be proud of | SA | A | D | SD |
| 54. I like myself | SA | A | D | SD |
| 55. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself | SA | A | D | SD |
| 56. I wish I could have more respect for myself | SA | A | D | SD |
| 57. I certainly feel useless at times | SA | A | D | SD |
| 58. At times I think I am no good at all | SA | A | D | SD |

THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS DESCRIBE HYPOTHETICAL SITUATIONS IN WHICH YOU FACE AN IMPORTANT DECISION. READ EACH STATEMENT CAREFULLY AND INDICATE WHICH OF THE TWO THINGS YOU WOULD MOST LIKELY DO IF YOU ACTUALLY FACED THE SITUATION.

59. You have been invited to a party to which you want very much to go. Your best friends have decided to go and are urging you to go too. They will be very unhappy if you don't go. Your parents, however, do not approve of the party and are urging you not to go. Your parents will be very unhappy if you do go. What would you do?

1. () Go to the party
2. () Stay home

60. How difficult was it for you to decide which you would likely do?

1. () Very difficult
2. () Somewhat difficult
3. () Somewhat easy
4. () Very easy

61. Suppose the situation above is reversed. Your parents are urging you to go to the party. However, your best friends have not been invited and are urging you not to go. You really don't want to go to the party. Your parents will be very unhappy if you don't go; your best friends will be very unhappy if you do go. What would you do?

1. () Go to party
2. () Stay home

62. How difficult was it for you to decide which you would likely do?

1. () Very difficult
2. () Somewhat difficult
3. () Somewhat easy
4. () Very easy

63. A large glass in the front door of the high school has been broken. Jim broke the glass. But both he and Bill were seen at the school the afternoon the glass was broken and both are suspected. Bill and Jim are friends and they agree to deny that they know anything about the broken glass. As a result, the principal pins the blame on both of them. You are the only person who knows who broke the glass because you were at school that afternoon. You didn't actually see the glass broken, but you heard the noise and saw Jim walking away from the door just afterwards. You are very much undecided what to do. The three friends you go around with most of the time don't think you should tell the principal. These friends hate to see an innocent person punished. But they point out to you that this is a matter between Jim and Bill and between Jim and his conscience. You talk the matter over with your mother and father. They feel that Jim is unfairly using Bill to lighten his own punishment. Your parents think you should tell the principal who broke the glass. What would you do?

1. () Tell the principal who broke the glass
2. () Not tell the principal who broke the glass

- go to top of the next page -

64. How difficult was it for you to decide which you would likely do?
1. () Very difficult
 2. () Somewhat difficult
 3. () Somewhat easy
 4. () Very easy
65. Suppose the situation above is reversed. Your parents think that you should not tell the principal. Your best friends, however, think you should tell the principal who broke the glass. What would you do?
1. () Tell the principal who broke the glass
 2. () Not tell the principal who broke the glass
66. How difficult was it for you to decide which you would likely do?
1. () Very difficult
 2. () Somewhat difficult
 3. () Somewhat easy
 4. () Very easy
67. You are at a point in school where you must make a decision between a college preparation program and a general program (noncollege oriented). Your best friends have all decided to enter the general program and are urging you to do the same. You want to because if you don't your friends will be very unhappy as you will be separated from them in school. Your parents, however, are strongly urging you to take the college prep program. You know also that your parents will be very unhappy if you decide not to do what they wish. Which program are you likely to enter?
1. () General Program (not college prep)
 2. () College Preparatory
68. How difficult was it for you to decide which you would likely do?
1. () Very difficult
 2. () Somewhat difficult
 3. () Somewhat easy
 4. () Very easy
69. Suppose the situation described above is reversed. Your parents want you to enter the general program while your best friends want you to enter the college prep program with them. You really prefer the college prep program. Which program are you likely to enter?
1. () General program (noncollege prep)
 2. () College preparatory
70. How difficult was it for you to decide which you would likely do?
1. () Very difficult
 2. () Somewhat difficult
 3. () Somewhat easy
 4. () Very easy
71. WHAT KIND OF JOB HAVE YOUR PARENTS SAID THEY WOULD REALLY LIKE TO SEE YOU GET WHEN YOU FINISH YOUR EDUCATION.
-
- (Specific name or title of job parents say they would really like to see you get. Note: If they haven't said, write "none" on the above line.)
72. WHAT KIND OF JOB HAVE YOUR PARENTS SAID THEY ACTUALLY EXPECT YOU TO GET WHEN YOU FINISH YOUR EDUCATION.
-
- (Specific name or title of job parents say they actually expect you to get. Note: If they haven't said, write "none" on the above line.)
- 73- LISTED BELOW ARE SEVERAL SCHOOL
75. ACTIVITIES. PLEASE CHECK ☒ ALL OF THOSE IN WHICH YOU PLAN TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS YEAR.
01. () A Cappella Choir
 02. () Art
 03. () Band or orchestra
 04. () Basketball
 05. () Baseball
 06. () Bleacher crew
 07. () C-12
 08. () Chair crew
 09. () Cheerleading
 10. () Chess club
 11. () Chorus
 12. () Class officer
 13. () Club officer
 14. () Coin club
 15. () Committee officer
 16. () Dance (Prom) committee
 17. () Debating team
 18. () Dilettantes
 19. () Drama club (National Thesbian society)
 20. () Football
 21. () Forestry club
 22. () Forsenics team
 23. () 4-H clubs
 24. () Future Business Leaders of America
 25. () Future Farmers of America
 26. () Future Homemakers of America

27. () Future Teachers of America
28. () German club
29. () Girls Drill Team
30. () Girls Recreational Association
31. () Girls Glee club
32. () Girls League
33. () Homecoming committee
34. () Industrial Arts club
35. () Indian Craft
36. () International Relations League
37. () Junior Community Aides
38. () Key club
39. () Les Saucissons
40. () Les Touches
41. () Letterman's
42. () Library club
43. () Math club
44. () National Honor Society
45. () NuDelta
46. () Newspaper staff - Orange "R"
47. () Pepsters
48. () Radio club
49. () Rally squad
50. () Science club
51. () Spanish club
52. () Speech club
53. () Student Beneficiary club
54. () Student council or Associated Student Body
55. () Swimming
56. () Tennis
57. () Track and field
58. () Torquers club
59. () Varsity R
60. () Warrior Guard
61. () Wrestling
62. () Yearbook staff
63. () Young Republicans
64. () Young Democrats
65. () Other (Specify: _____)

CARD THREE

MANY YOUNG PEOPLE LIKE YOURSELF FIND IT DIFFICULT TO TALK WITH THEIR PARENTS ABOUT SOME THINGS AND NOT DIFFICULT AT ALL TO TALK TO THEIR PARENTS ABOUT OTHER THINGS. As you read each question, consider whether you never (N), sometimes (S), often (O), or always (A) have difficulty in talking about the problem with your father, mother, and best friends. Please circle your answer. Note: If you haven't talked about a given problem with your parents or best friends, do you feel you might have difficulty if you did? How often?

NOTE: If you have not been living with your father during the past year (since October, 1966) - SKIP TO QUESTION 24.

HOW OFTEN DO YOU FIND IT DIFFICULT TO TALK WITH YOUR FATHER CONCERNING:

	1.	2.	3.	4.
12. Appropriate entertainment	N	S	O	A
13. How to dress	N	S	O	A
14. Drinking and/or smoking	N	S	O	A
15. Job	N	S	O	A
16. Religion	N	S	O	A
17. Sex and/or petting ("making love")	N	S	O	A
18. Money	N	S	O	A
19. Fears	N	S	O	A
20. Late hours	N	S	O	A
21. Dating	N	S	O	A
22. Marriage	N	S	O	A
23. Education	N	S	O	A

NOTE: If you have not been living with your mother during the past year (since October, 1966) - SKIP TO QUESTION 36.

HOW OFTEN DO YOU FIND IT DIFFICULT TO TALK WITH YOUR MOTHER CONCERNING:

	1.	2.	3.	4.
24. Appropriate entertainment	N	S	O	A
25. How to dress	N	S	O	A
26. Drinking and/or smoking	N	S	O	A
27. Job	N	S	O	A
28. Religion	N	S	O	A
29. Sex and/or petting ("making love")	N	S	O	A
30. Money	N	S	O	A
31. Fears	N	S	O	A
32. Late hours	N	S	O	A
33. Dating	N	S	O	A
34. Marriage	N	S	O	A
35. Education	N	S	O	A

HOW OFTEN DO YOU FIND IT DIFFICULT TO TALK WITH YOUR BEST FRIENDS CONCERNING:

	1.	2.	3.	4.
36. Appropriate entertainment	N	S	O	A
37. How to dress	N	S	O	A
38. Drinking and/or smoking	N	S	O	A
39. Job	N	S	O	A
40. Religion	N	S	O	A
41. Sex and/or petting ("making love")	N	S	O	A
42. Money	N	S	O	A
43. Fears	N	S	O	A
44. Late hours	N	S	O	A
45. Dating	N	S	O	A
46. Marriage	N	S	O	A
47. Education	N	S	O	A

48. GENERALLY, WITH WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING DO YOU MOST OFTEN DISCUSS THINGS THAT ARE DIFFICULT FOR YOU TO TALK ABOUT?

1. () Best Friends
2. () Parents
3. () Both about the same

People usually report they have some specific requirements in mind when they are thinking about an IDEAL FUTURE JOB. Some of the requirements they have mentioned are listed below. As you read them, consider to what extent a job or career would have to satisfy each of these requirements before you could consider the job IDEAL.

Please circle HIGH - H if you consider the requirement highly important.

Circle MEDIUM - M if you consider the requirement of medium importance.

Circle LOW - L if you consider the requirement of little importance.

Circle NO - N if you consider the requirement of no importance at all.

- go to top of the page -

THE IDEAL JOB WOULD: 1. 2. 3. 4.

49. Provide an opportunity to use my special abilities or aptitudes H M L N
50. Provide me with a chance to earn a good deal of money H M L N
51. Permit me to be creative and original H M L N
52. Give me a social status and prestige H M L N
53. Give me an opportunity to work with people rather than things H M L N
54. Enable me to look forward to a stable, secure future H M L N
55. Leave me relatively free of supervision by others H M L N
56. Give me a chance to exercise leadership H M L N
57. Provide me with adventure H M L N
58. Give me an opportunity to be helpful to others H M L N
59. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING HAS THE GREATEST INFLUENCE ON YOUR IDEAS ABOUT AN IDEAL FUTURE JOB?

1. () Teachers
2. () Best Friends
3. () Parents
4. () Other (Specify: _____)

People who go on to school after high school do so for many reasons. Some of these reasons are listed below. As you read them, consider how important each reason is to you. NOTE: If you do not expect to go to more school after you graduate indicate how important the reason would be if you were planning to go.

Please circle HIGH - H if you consider the reason highly important.

Circle MEDIUM - M if you consider the reason of medium importance.

Circle LOW - L if you consider the reason of little importance.

Circle NO - N if you consider the reason of no importance at all.

- go to top of the next page -

REASONS FOR GOING ON TO SCHOOL:

- | | 1. | 2. | 3. | 4. |
|--|----|----|----|----|
| 60. Acquiring the skills necessary to earn a living | H | M | L | N |
| 61. To prepare for an occupation | H | M | L | N |
| 62. To learn new things just to know them | H | M | L | N |
| 63. To broaden intellectual and cultural outlook | H | M | L | N |
| 64. To enjoy social life | H | M | L | N |
| 65. To have fun | H | M | L | N |
| 66. Because friends expect it | H | M | L | N |
| 67. Because parents expect it | H | M | L | N |
| 68. To learn to get along with others | H | M | L | N |
| 69. To find the right person to marry | H | M | L | N |
| 70. To develop personality and character | H | M | L | N |
| 71. To become a responsible person | H | M | L | N |
| 72. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING HAS THE <u>GREATEST</u> INFLUENCE ON YOUR REASONS FOR GOING ON TO SCHOOL? | | | | |

1. () Teachers
 2. () Best Friends
 3. () Parents
 4. () Other (Specify: _____)

People usually have some specific ideas in mind when they are thinking about the rights and responsibilities of parents and children. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD), that the statement is true. Please circle your answer.

- | | 1. | 2. | 3. | 4. |
|---|----|----|----|----|
| 73. Children should not be forced to eat if they don't want to | SA | A | D | SD |
| 74. Children should be permitted to tell their parents what they think about them | SA | A | D | SD |
| 75. Parents should punish a child when he misbehaves | SA | A | D | SD |

- go to top of the page -

- | | 1. | 2. | 3. | 4. |
|---|----|----|----|----|
| 76. Children should eat just what they like | SA | A | D | SD |
| 77. When a child wants his own way his parents should let him have it | SA | A | D | SD |
| 78. Parents should not give in when a child wants his own way | SA | A | D | SD |

CARD FOUR

People usually have some specific ideas in mind when they are thinking about an IDEAL MARRIAGE. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read them, consider how important each idea is to you.

Please circle HIGH - H if you consider the idea highly important.

Circle MEDIUM - M if you consider the idea of medium importance.

Circle LOW - L if you consider the idea of little importance.

Circle NO - N if you consider the idea of no importance.

- | | 1. | 2. | 3. | 4. |
|---|----|----|----|----|
| 12. Husbands and wives should share equally in all decisions | H | M | L | N |
| 13. Although a husband should consult his wife about what to do, he should make the final decision in important matters | H | M | L | N |
| 14. Husbands should <u>only</u> make the final decisions in areas in which they have more training than their wives | H | M | L | N |
| 15. When a husband and wife disagree about something, a wife should be willing to give in first | H | M | L | N |

- go to top of the next page -

- | | <u>1.</u> | <u>2.</u> | <u>3.</u> | <u>4.</u> |
|--|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| 16. Teenage children should be consulted for their opinions before decisions are made | H | M | L | N |
| 17. In a marriage the husband should do his jobs and the wife her jobs | H | M | L | N |
| 18. A wife should get up and fix her husband breakfast on work days regardless of what time he has to leave in the morning | H | M | L | N |
| 19. If both a husband and wife are working, a husband should help fix the evening meal and do dishes | H | M | L | N |
| 20. A husband should do his wife's work and a wife her husband's work if necessary | H | M | L | N |
| 21. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING HAS THE GREATEST INFLUENCE ON YOUR IDEAS ABOUT AN IDEAL MARRIAGE? | | | | |
| 1. () Teachers | | | | |
| 2. () Best Friends | | | | |
| 3. () Parents | | | | |
| 4. () Other (Specify: _____) | | | | |

People usually have many ideas about what a student ought to do in school. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read them, consider how important each idea is to you.

Please circle HIGH - H if you consider the idea highly important.

Circle MEDIUM - M if you consider the idea of medium importance.

Circle LOW - L if you consider the idea of little importance.

Circle NO - N if you consider the idea of no importance at all.

- | A STUDENT OUGHT TO: | <u>1.</u> | <u>2.</u> | <u>3.</u> | <u>4.</u> |
|---|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| 22. Spend most of spare time reading and studying | H | M | L | N |
| 23. Do very best in school work (grades, study) | H | M | L | N |
| 24. Be a star in sports activities | H | M | L | N |

- | | <u>1.</u> | <u>2.</u> | <u>3.</u> | <u>4.</u> |
|---|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| 25. Be a leader in school activities | H | M | L | N |
| 26. Be popular with his (her) classmates | H | M | L | N |
| 27. Have fun - study only enough to keep grades above passing | H | M | L | N |

People have many ideas about what young people like yourself ought to do. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true. Please circle your answer.

- | A YOUNG PERSON OUGHT TO: | <u>1.</u> | <u>2.</u> | <u>3.</u> | <u>4.</u> |
|--|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| 28. Have his (her) own car | SA | A | D | SD |
| 29. Make own decisions about late hours, smoking, drinking | SA | A | D | SD |
| 30. Choose own dates | SA | A | D | SD |
| 31. Choose own clubs or groups to join | SA | A | D | SD |
| 32. Be active in nonschool activities such as Boy Scouts, religious youth groups | SA | A | D | SD |
| 33. Choose own friends | SA | A | D | SD |
| 34. Be trusted | SA | A | D | SD |
| 35. Be punished for breaking the law just like anybody else | SA | A | D | SD |
| 36. Be supervised by adults at nonschool parties | SA | A | D | SD |
| 37. Have standards (rules) to obey such as what time to be in, where not to go | SA | A | D | SD |

- go to top of the page -

People have many ideas about what young people ought to do at home. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read them, consider how important each idea is to you.

Please circle HIGH - H if you consider the idea highly important.

Circle MEDIUM - M if you consider the idea of medium importance.

Circle LOW - L if you consider the idea of little importance.

Circle NO - N if you consider the idea of no importance.

A YOUNG PERSON OUGHT TO: 1. 2. 3. 4.

38. do things around the house without being asked H M L N

39. help with setting and clearing the table, washing dishes, sweeping, dusting, washing and ironing clothes H M L N

40. help with cooking and planning main meals, sewing, interior design H M L N

41. help with mowing lawn, taking out garbage, shopping for groceries H M L N

42. help with shopping for furniture, appliances, cars H M L N

43. be consulted for any major decisions that need to be made H M L N

44. obey his parents even though he thinks they are wrong H M L N

45. be respectful to his parents H M L N

46. show his parents that he loves them H M L N

47. HOW OFTEN DO YOUR PARENTS NAG AND QUARREL WITH EACH OTHER?

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-------------------|
| 1. () Never | 3. () Often |
| 2. () Sometimes | 4. () Constantly |
| 9. () not living with father | |
| () not living with mother | |

48. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES HOW DISAGREEMENTS ARE SETTLED IN YOUR FAMILY? Note: If you have not lived with either your mother or father during the past year, check one of the boxes below.

1. () Neither my father nor my mother usually give in
2. () My father usually gives in to my mother
3. () My mother usually gives in to my father
4. () My parents usually reach an agreement through mutual give and take
5. () My parents never or seldom have any disagreements
 9. () not living with father
 - () not living with mother

49. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES HOW IMPORTANT DECISIONS ARE MADE IN YOUR FAMILY? Note: If you have not lived with either your mother or father during the past year, check one of the boxes below.

1. () Usually, my father makes the decision without first discussing the matter with my mother
2. () Usually, my father discusses the matter with my mother and then he makes the decision more or less by himself
3. () Usually, both of my parents talk over the matter with each other and then they both make the decision more or less together
4. () Usually, my mother discusses the matter with my father and then she makes the decision more or less by herself
5. () Usually, my mother makes the decision without first discussing the matter with my father
 9. () not living with father
 - () not living with mother

50. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES YOUR PART IN IMPORTANT FAMILY DECISIONS?

1. () My parents never ask for my opinion
2. () My parents sometimes ask for my opinion
3. () My parents often ask for my opinion
4. () My parents almost always ask for my opinion

51. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES HOW IMPORTANT YOUR PARENTS REGARD YOUR OPINION IN IMPORTANT FAMILY DECISIONS?

1. () What I say usually does not make a difference in the decision
2. () What I say usually does make a difference in the decision

52. EVERYTHING CONSIDERED, HOW HAPPY HAS YOUR PARENTS MARRIAGE BEEN?

1. () Extremely happy
2. () Very happy
3. () Somewhat happy
4. () Somewhat unhappy
5. () Very unhappy
6. () Extremely unhappy

53. SUPPOSE YOU WANT TO GO TO A MOVIE. YOUR PARENTS REFUSE AND YOU BEGIN TO ARGUE STRONGLY. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING WOULD YOUR PARENTS MOST LIKELY DO?

1. () Let me go to avoid further argument; or become angry and tell me to do as I please
2. () Let me argue but remain firm unless I had sound reasons
3. () Not even listen to me and punish me more for arguing
4. () Continue to refuse and punish me so that I'd learn not to argue

54. SUPPOSE YOUR PARENTS HAVE JUST HEARD FROM YOUR TEACHER THAT YOU HAVE NOT BEEN COMPLETING YOUR HOMEWORK? WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING WOULD YOUR PARENTS MOST LIKELY DO?

1. () Turn off the TV (or record player) for a week as punishment for neglecting my school work
2. () Scold me for a while, but they'd soon forget it
3. () Talk it over with me and help me decide how to meet the problem
4. () Get angry and tell me it will be my own fault if I don't pass

55- WHAT IS YOUR RELIGIOUS PREFERENCE?

56. NOTE: Please be as precise as possible in giving the specific religious preference. Example: Southern Baptist, Free Methodist, Roman Catholic, etc. If you have no religious preference put "none."

(Your religious preference. Note: If you have a religious preference, are you a member?)

57. 1. () Yes, I am a member
2. () No, I am not a member

58. HOW OFTEN DO YOU ATTEND A WORSHIP SERVICE IN A CHURCH OR SYNAGOGUE?

1. () Never
2. () Several times a year
3. () About once a month
4. () Two or three times a month
5. () About once a week
6. () More than once a week

LISTED BELOW ARE SEVERAL STATEMENTS ABOUT YOUR RELATIONSHIPS WITH YOUR BROTHERS AND SISTERS. The terms "brothers" and "sisters" refers to whoever you are living with -- step brothers/sisters or foster children.

59. DO YOU HAVE BROTHERS OR SISTERS AT HOME?

1. () No - (SKIP TO QUESTION 66)
2. () Yes - (GO ON TO QUESTION 60)

INDICATE YOUR REACTION TO EACH STATEMENT ABOUT YOUR RELATIONSHIP WITH YOUR BROTHERS AND SISTERS. NOTE: Please circle your answer. N if never, S if sometimes, O if often, and A if always.

	1.	2.	3.	4.
60. Do you talk about sex and the facts of life with any of your brothers or sisters	N	S	O	A
61. Do you attend movies, basketball games, or concerts, etc., with any of your brothers or sisters	N	S	O	A
62. Do you talk with any of your brothers or sisters about books, magazines or articles you read	N	S	O	A
63. When you need advice, do you ever go to any of your brothers or sisters for it	N	S	O	A
64. Do you enjoy doing things together with any of your brothers or sisters	N	S	O	A
65. Do any of your brothers or sisters get a better "deal" than you from your parents	N	S	O	A

66. HOW MUCH TIME ON SCHOOL DAYS DO YOU USUALLY SPEND TALKING WITH MEMBERS OF YOUR FAMILY?

1. () none, or almost none
2. () less than 1/2 hour a day
3. () about 1/2 hour a day
4. () about 1 hour a day
5. () about 1 1/2 hours a day
6. () about 2 hours a day
7. () about 3 hours a day
8. () about 4 hours a day
9. () 5 or more hours a day

67. HOW MUCH TIME ON SCHOOL DAYS DO YOU USUALLY SPEND TALKING WITH YOUR BEST FRIENDS? (Note: Do not include time spent in the classroom.)

1. () none or almost none
2. () less than 1/2 hour a day
3. () about 1/2 hour a day
4. () about 1 hour a day
5. () about 1 1/2 hours a day
6. () about 2 hours a day
7. () about 3 hours a day
8. () about 4 hours a day
9. () 5 or more hours a day

68. WHERE DO YOU SPEND MOST OF YOUR FREE TIME WITH YOUR BEST FRIENDS?

1. () At school sponsored activities such as ballgames, parties, club meetings
2. () At non-school activities such as youth parties, church meetings
3. () At various places where young people like myself "hang around"
4. () At my place (home)
5. () At one of my friend's places (friends' home)
6. () Other (Where? _____)

69. WHAT WOULD YOU SAY WAS YOUR AVERAGE GRADE IN SCHOOL LAST GRADING PERIOD?

1. () Mostly 1's
2. () Mixed 1's and 2's
3. () Mostly 2's
4. () Mixed 2's and 3's
5. () Mostly 3's
6. () Mixed 3's and 4's
7. () Mostly 4's
8. () Mixed 4's and 5's
9. () Mostly 5's

70. HOW MUCH TIME DO YOU USUALLY SPEND EACH DAY DOING HOMEWORK OUTSIDE OF SCHOOL?

1. () None or almost none
2. () About 1/2 hour a day
3. () About 1 hour a day
4. () About 1 1/2 hours a day
5. () About 2 hours a day
6. () 3 or more hours a day

71. IF YOU COULD BE REMEMBERED HERE AT SCHOOL FOR ONE OF THE FOUR THINGS BELOW, WHICH ONE WOULD YOU MOST WANT IT TO BE?

1. () Outstanding student
2. () Athletic star
3. () Most popular
4. () Leader in school activities

72. DO YOU DATE?

1. () No
2. () Yes, more than once a week
3. () Yes, once a week
4. () Yes, more than once a month, but less than once a week
5. () Yes, once a month or less

73. HOW MANY PERSONS HAVE YOU DATED DURING THE PAST MONTH?

1. () None
2. () One person
3. () Two to three persons
4. () Four to five persons
5. () Six or more persons

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION. REMEMBER TO TAKE THE "TAKE-HOME PACKET" WITH YOU. PLEASE BE SURE TO URGE YOUR PARENTS TO RETURN THE QUESTIONNAIRES AS SOON AS POSSIBLE.

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